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ABSTRACT

An abstracted bibliography of 191 dissertations is included in this book, which is part 2 of a two part volume discussing various aspects and all levels of education in the Philippines. Included dissertations were completed in the United States, Canada, and some European countries. Organized alphabetically by author, each citation contains information about the: (1) title; (2) university where the dissertation was completed; (3) year of completion; (4) number of pages; and (5) directions for ordering the dissertation. This book provides abstracts of dissertations written by authors whose surnames begin with the letters M-Z. A title index is included. (Author/JHP)

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A Bibliography with Abstracts

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Franklin Parker

and

Betty June Parker

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Philippines

Part 2

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231. MACALINAO-SOLIS, Miguela (Ed. D.). "Organization and Administration of Elementary Teacher Education in the Philippines." Stanford University, 1955. 428 pp. Source: DAI, XV, 5 (1955), 754. XUM Order No. 11,165.

This study explored and identified the basic consideration in the organization and administration of desirable elementary teacher education programs geared to the nationwide movement for socio-economic prosperity and security in the Philippines. The project emphasized possible solutions to problems now being encountered by the regional teachers colleges of the Philippine Government. The results will serve as a guide in improving both public and private teacher-education institutions.

Philippines socioeconomic data were analyzed for goals to be realized through the community schools. Such information was contained in official census statistics, surveys, reports of governmental and private agencies, investigations by Filipino and American experts, reports of UN agencies, and literature by Filipino and foreign observers.

Findings of the Study

The major functions of the community schools, determined by the country's vast resources, together with Philippine needs and problems are to: select and organize teaching-learning activities, experiences, and situations from the present status and growth potentials of resources, needs and problems; maintain and extend desirable aspects of cultural heritage; understand and educate all ages of learners as individuals and group members; administer schools and community as interdependent in a democratic system; aid personal-professional growth of school personnel; develop appraisals through evidence of changes in learners, home living, community conditions and agency services in adequately meeting community needs, and utilizing resources.

The resultant teacher's roles are: organizer of teaching-learning experiences based on community conditions and resource potentials; transmitter and extender of cultural heritage; helper, guide, and counselor; liaison between school and community; congenial school-community member; an active member of the profession. If the above functions are properly executed, the community schools will foster maximum individual growth as well as improvement and enrichment of community living.

The three major phases of teacher education required to enable adequate preparation for the future teacher to live fully as an educated person and to perform successfully as a teacher are: General Education--growth in citizenship, knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes; Educational Foundations--fundamental principles, theories, and practices underlying the WHAT, HOW, WHEN, AND WHY of education; Professional Education--major principles, theories and practices characteristic of elementary teaching. These phases are closely interdependent and interrelated in producing competencies expected of teachers.

Since each region has characteristics peculiar to itself, no two colleges can offer identical programs. The proposed program, therefore, should serve primarily as a guide.

A desirable teacher education institution: provides understanding of its own service area; co-operates with community agencies; develops its on-campus laboratory school as a dynamic research center; maintains relationships with community schools for students to live and learn realities in teaching; assumes professional leadership; and devotes total resources to the development of teaching competencies.

Basic policies in administering such programs require: adequate student and faculty welfare provisions; desirable criteria for faculty selection; continuous evaluation by staff and laymen of current national and regional problems; necessary personnel and resources to develop these programs; systematic recruitment, selection, counseling, placement and follow-up of students; active cooperation in national accreditation and certification; line-staff administrative organization; active involvement in teachers' associations; active cooperation regarding the proposed Division of Teacher Education.

Results of this study leave much work both for the Central Office of Teacher Education and regional colleges. To prepare and maintain competent teachers some researches are urgently needed: socio-economic studies of each region; improvement of educational techniques; participation in National Economic Council five-year plans; education of Filipinos for the power-machine age; pupils' participation in community services; avoidance of duplication of projects and better coordination between community schools and other agencies in fostering the national movement for continuous socio-economic prosperity and security.

232. McARTHUR, Harold Jerome, Jr. (Ph. D.). "Adolescent Peer Groups and Socialization in the Rural Philippines: A Socio-Ecological Perspective." University of Hawaii, 1977. 307 pp. Source: DAI, XXXIX, 1A (July, 1978), 346-A-347-A. XUM Order No. 7810255.

This study demonstrates how male adolescent peer groups (barkadas) affect attitudes and behavior in the rural Ilocos area of the Philippines. Since the problems and pressures presented by the environment affect the form and extent of a barkada's socializing influence, groups were studied in two contrasting settings--a remote village (barrio) and a small town. The effects of several interrelated social and ecological factors upon peer group structure and activity patterns are highlighted by this comparative approach.

The guiding theoretical basis of this research is derived from John Bennett's (1969) concept of ecological adaptation. Focus is upon mechanisms developed by adolescent peer groups for coping with an environment which includes physical and social elements both within and external to the community. Three factors, each arising from complex interaction between social and physical elements, receive major emphasis: land utilization, residential configuration and population characteristics. Although significant in the two settings, these factors do not necessarily represent nor determine the total system.

Variance in membership patterns and group structure is related to differing socio-ecological conditions. In both barrio and town, contrasting patterns of peer group behavior are shown to emerge from differential patterning of relationships between these three socio-ecological factors. A relatively compact and contiguous pattern of land utilization in the barrio enhanced peer group interaction and contributed to a high level of adolescent involvement in agriculture. In the town a more diverse pattern of land distribution impeded both group interaction and agricultural participation. Manifestations of group identity among peer group members varied in association with population size and housing configuration.

The socializing influence of barkadas in both communities was generally consistent with the norms, roles and expectations of adult society. In rural Ilocos the family and adolescent peer group constitute compatible rather than conflicting social units. These findings challenge the common assumption that peer groups become significant socializing agents only when the family is incapacitated as an adequate socializing agent by rapid social change. Urban studies have associated the rise of peer groups with a decline in family cohesion and influence. But in these stable rural communities, intact families delegate aspects of socialization to adolescent peer groups. Each unit has a distinct sphere of influence, and their roles as socializing agents are complementary.

Little difference was found in basic attitudes and values held by youth and adults in both the town and barrio. This contradicts Patricia Licuanan's (1971) contention that the difference would be greater in the more rural areas because of greater disparity between generations in educational background and professional aspirations.

At a more general level, the study demonstrates the usefulness of the socio-ecological approach in the study of human development and socialization. The approach permits a systems analysis of the interaction between the individual and various physical and social elements in his environment, and makes possible an integration of various theories and constructs associated with the cultural continuity, impulse control and role learning approaches to socialization.

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Gerald Alan McBeath

233. McBEATH, Gerald Alan (Ph. D.). "Political Integration of the Philippine Chinese." University of California, Berkeley, 1970. 387 pp. Source: DAI, XXXI, 12A (June, 1971), 6682-A. XUM Order No. 71-15,828.

An heuristic model of political integration was applied to the contemporary Philippine Chinese community. The model contained six preconditions to political integration, sequentially ordered as follows:

1. Cultural adaptation (including *preference* for the use of Philippine languages, religions, customs and employment of core cultural values of the Filipino culture).
2. Structural integration--the formation of strong social relationships with Filipinos and receptive attitudes toward intermarriage.
3. Development of favorable cognitions and motivational states between minority and majority.
4. Both the curbing of excessively particularistic interests and the recognition of community survival as legitimate.
5. Minority group autonomy.
6. Recognition of national governmental legitimacy.

For those parts of the model amenable to analysis through social survey techniques, a representative sample of Philippine Chinese youth was constructed. These students (and a Filipino control group) answered a questionnaire tapping social and political attitudes, values, and background factors. This survey was complemented through review of community organizational history, the community press, and in-depth interviews with members of the community elite--forming a composite picture of change.

In general, Philippine Chinese students displayed a high degree of adaptation to the cast of Philippine society. This was established by their proficiency in the use of Philippine languages, knowledge of central values, sets of secondary-group relationships with Filipinos (which comprehended all Chinese), and by social and political attitudes which seemingly differed little from those of Filipino students. But variable analysis consistently demonstrated that this was an adaptation of transparent form and not of substance. Thus, students used Filipino patterns within ethnically Chinese settings (Christian religions practiced in Chinese congregations, Filipino values applied to Chinese groups). This allowed the retention and operationalization of negative stereotypes toward Filipinos.

The Philippine Chinese community could not be regarded as either "oppressed" or disadvantaged. Under a panoply of hostile attitudes and discriminatory legislation, the Philippine Chinese appear as a highly advantaged minority. This redounds first to superficial accommodation that has been highly successful. But more directly, Philippine Chinese form a highly structured and resilient community. The Chinese family and clan provide emotional security; the Chinese school gives an education superior to that obtained at Filipino public schools while socializing students into traditional socio-cultural values; the community organization regulates status and maintains ideological and cultural chastity.

Within this general designed avoidance of true adaptive change and integration, Philippine Chinese youth represent several stages of adaptation. Five major sources for integrative types were found. Of these, racial ancestry was discovered to be the major locus for change. Those students with Filipino ancestry showed greatest adaptive change. But this was related to the second most significant variable--residence. All Manila students (where the ethnically "pure" Chinese settlement is largest and where community organizations flourish) tended to be less adapted than provincial students. This, in turn, was further interpreted by type of school attended. Attendance at chamber schools (those with no religious affiliation and usually established by chambers of commerce) was unlikely to advance assimilation; these schools, especially in Manila, were found the true repository for Chinese chauvinism. Site of education was further related to economic class of students. Those from high income families could easily (and were encouraged to) matriculate at elite schools--which, although comprising mainly Chinese students, nevertheless were likely to have a Filipinized curriculum. Sex of student varied uniformly within each type; females in all cases were more tradition-bound than males.

Because the Philippine Chinese are not regarded as a threat to the Philippine government (due to their small population and rightest political coloration), consequently no impetus has been given to Chinese assimilation; communalism is reinforced, and individual adaptation is possible only through estrangement from the community.

234. McCARTHY, Florence Elizabeth (Ph. D.). "Third Cultural Networks of Philippine Physical, Life, and Social Scientists." Michigan State University, 1972. 213 pp. Source: DAI, XXXIII, 5A (November, 1972), 2516-A. XUM Order No. 72-30,008.

The study has two primary levels of analysis. One is the analysis of a particular segment of Philippine society; i.e., academic institutions and their influence on science, including patterns of institutional linkage within the Philippines and to institutions abroad. The second level is a descriptive analysis of the types and patterns of personal scientific networks created and maintained by Philippine academic scientists, involving other Philippine scientists and scientists in other countries around the world.

The two interests are seen as being mutually related, as the institutional framework and environment sets the stage for, and has great influence on, scientific work in general in these institutions. The institutional environment also directly influences the specific responses of Philippine scientists to their work situation as manifested in the type of research being done, for example, or in the relative importance of external scientific communication and ties. While some attention is given to scientific networks within the Philippines, the primary concern is with the patterning of scientific ties outside the Philippines to the larger world-wide scientific community.

Drawing on the literature of social networks, quasi-groups, and non-groups, the concept of "personal network" is developed to distinguish the individualized scientific ties of Philippine scientists to scientists abroad, from the more established institutionalized linkages of universities abroad. While interrelated, the establishment and maintenance of personal networks as compared with institutional linkages are quite different and serve different functions. Among Philippine scientists, it is found that different types of personal scientific networks exist. Such types are extensive, intensive, or nascent ties. In addition, it is found that the centrality or importance of scientific networks to scientific self-identities vary as well. As explained in the text, scientists with intensive ties, coming primarily from the physical sciences, are more likely to consider their personal networks more central to their scientific identities than are Philippine scientists with different kinds of networks, coming from either the life sciences or the social sciences.

Data are based on open-ended, pre-tested interviews of one hundred productive, academic, Philippine scientists from ten selected universities. Scientists were sampled from the physical, social and life sciences.

235. MACEDA, Delfina Salvador (Ph. D.). "Use of Time by Married Homemakers In The Teaching Force, Manila, Philippines." Cornell University, 1958. 183 pp. Source: DAI, XIX, 10 (April, 1959), 2597.

This study was undertaken to:

1. Provide data on time spent in homemaking activities by married homemakers in Manila, Philippines, who are as-

suming the responsibility of a professional position along with homemaking.

2. Determine the effect of size of household and stage of family life cycle on time expenditures for homemaking.

3. Determine the kind and amount of help given by members of the household in homemaking tasks.

The data were obtained through a questionnaire filled out by 150 married homemakers in the teaching force, Manila, Philippines. Homemakers reported their use of time on two week days. All homemakers recorded their time expenditures on Saturday and groups of 33 each recorded for one of the week days, Monday through Friday.

The homemakers averaged a total work day of 12.2 hours on regular school days and 10,1 hours on Saturday. The time for homemaking increased from 5.6 hours on regular school days to 8.1 on Saturday. The most time consuming task for the homemakers was food preparation. To supplant the tasks of the home, 23 per cent of the homemakers used a commercial laundry and all patronized the bakery. The homemakers liked cooking, care of the house, care of the family members, and home decorating best. Dishwashing and washing clothes were disliked most.

Husbands, relatives, children, and paid helpers helped the homemakers in homemaking tasks. The helpers averaged 18.9 hours a day on regular school days and 11.8 hours on Saturday in their household duties. Paid helpers did most of the household duties and their most time consuming task was care of the family members.

When homemakers' and helpers' time expenditures for homemaking were combined the mean hours were 24,5 on regular school days and 19.9 on Saturday

Although the activities of the home are much the same, many problems seem to have more potency in a given stage of the family life cycle or with changes in size of household. As families increased in size and age of the family members as they moved through successive stages of the family life cycle, increases in homemakers' mean time expenditures ranged from 1.6 to 2 hours for food preparation, 0.9 to 1.3 hours for care of the house, and 0.7 to 1.2 hours for sewing and mending clothes. There was a decrease in mean time spent from 4.1 to 1.5 hours for care of the family members. The stage of the family life cycle did not affect the time spent for marketing.

As the size of the household increased, the mean time spent by the homemakers increased from 0.7 to 1.6 hours for sewing and mending clothes. Conversely, decreases from 2.7 to 1.6 hours for care of family members and 1.5 to 0.1 hours for ironing clothes were noted. The size of the household did not affect the homemakers' time expenditure for other tasks studied.

The helpers' mean time spent for sewing and mending clothes increased from 1.2 to 2.3 hours as the size of the household increased, while the mean time spent for care of the family members decreased from 5.1 to 4.2 hours.

When homemakers' and helpers' time expenditures were combined, increases were found from 3.9 to 4.5 hours for care of the house and from 2.5 to 4.1 hours for ironing clothes. The mean hours spent for care of the family decreased from 7.8 to 6.1 as the size of the household increased.

The electric polisher and vacuum cleaner were found to be helpful labor saving devices for the homemakers who owned these pieces of equipment spent a mean time of 0.9 hours while those who did not own them spent 1.5 hours for care of the house.

The family life cycle and size of household as factors for analyzing homemaking time expenditures open ways to understand problems and potentials of family life.

236. MAGDAMO, Patricia Ling (Ed. D.). "An Approach to Moral Education in Philippine Secondary Schools." Columbia University, 1975. 277 pp. Source: DAI, XXXV, 12A, Part 1 (June, 1975), 7737-A-7738-A. XUM Order No. 75-12,588.

This study aims to evaluate the current state of moral education in Philippine public high schools; to discuss the implications of some research now being undertaken in the West; and lastly, to focus on the areas which can be improved by the study.

Philippine public schools, unlike their private counterparts, have had to cope with tremendous increase in population and families with subsistence income levels as well as with the prescribed curriculum of a bureaucratic structure. Yet education is an all-consuming goal among Filipinos and the high school is a link between family and the larger society of higher education and work.

Within this system character education has been largely influenced by the several cultural "invasions" such as Spanish (predominantly religious instruction), American colonial government (democratic ideals) and later independence. Each government's priority goals were imprinted on education.

An examination of history and culture reveals the unique response of "filipinization" to external pressures, some of them persisting to this day in the norms and values of the majority lowland Filipinos. Modern research techniques have added new information to the knowledge of these values.

Three of them are analyzed in this study: pakikisama (smooth interpersonal relations); hiya and amor propio (sensitivity to personal affront); and utang na loob (reciprocity). Together they portray an important segment of Filipino personality and behavior. A conceptual knowledge of such values is useful to all educators.

The values emphasize salient qualities in the culture; strong, cohesive family life which is extended through baptism and marriage; firm religious foundation that somehow combines dogma with folk-beliefs; and in-group loyalty.

A rapidly modernizing Philippines threatens traditional values, an important consideration for moral education. To demonstrate the current state of character education and the need for change, a sample of six lessons selected from a high school text in use is provided in the Appendix. Its "bag of virtues" approach builds character through habit, exhortation and traditional emphasis on those traits considered right for a well-behaved individual. Contemporary

Patricia Ling Magdamo

issues such as population expansion, urban pressures, business ethics and sexual freedom are not confronted. The impact of mass media, higher education, and the liberalizing programs of the Christian Church have had more effect upon value-orientation and social change.

In response the implications of current research in the West were examined, with particular attention given to the cognitive-developmental approach represented by Piaget and Kohlberg. Kohlberg claims his stage-sequence development theory has cross-cultural validity. There is considerable attraction to a theory that builds on the natural development of the child and moves through stage structures to more abstract thinking, and application of universal moral principles. The six stages in three levels represent development through cognitive structures in interaction with the environment and with others. The main criticism is the lack of concentration on the affective element. Philippine society relies largely on this quality through myth, ritual, drama, art, music and religion.

The conclusion is that, taken with cautious reservation for its obvious lack, the developmental approach is applicable to some extent in Philippine moral education. Further study remains to be done. Filipino educators can and should examine these implications and use what is adaptable. Three areas are suggested: curriculum, school organization, and teacher education. No attempt is made to specify instructional decisions and devices. Only directions for guidelines are offered.

It may be that Dewey's appeal for an environment that provides for the total experience of individuals in "making connections" with life situations is best for Philippine society.

237. MAHILUM, Paulita Melchor (Ed. D.). "The Development and Evaluation of Programed Instructional Modules in Child Development for Filipino Home Economics College Students." Oklahoma State University, 1971. 211 pp. Source: DAI, XXXIII, 2B (August, 1972), 805-B. XUM Order No.

Paulita Melchor Mahilum

72-21,937.

SCOPE AND METHOD OF STUDY

Large enrollment and few teachers make individualized instruction in home economics in the Philippines difficult. Programed instruction (PI), when the feasibility of its use is carefully evaluated, could partly solve such a problem. The problem of this study was focused on the development and evaluation of PI modules using basic concepts in child development and guidance for home economics students at the college level. Included in the evaluation phase was further testing of the PI modules with high school sample. Four hypotheses were formulated. Expressed in null form, these are:

1. There is no significant difference in the mean scores of the criterion pretest and posttest for either the experimental group using the PI modules or the control group having lecture and discussion only.

2. There is no significant difference between the mean scores in a criterion posttest of the college experimental and control groups after equating initial differences regarding criterion pretest scores, cumulative grade point average (GPA), and English language proficiency.

3. There are no significant correlations between:

    a. Modified gain scores (MGS) and GPA for either the experimental or control group.

    b. English language proficiency scores (MTELP) and either GPA or MGS of the experimental and the control groups.

    c. Attitude toward PI and either GPA or MGS of the experimental group.

4. There are no significant differences among means of the MGS of the three groups of students, namely: the experimental college group, the fourth year high school, and the first year high school.

Two PI modules were developed: One was a 157-frame (linear type and its variations) on child rearing practices and guidance, and the other was a 79-frame modified branching type of Erikson's theory on the development of a healthy personality. Evaluation of the PI modules, and consequently the programed instruction, was completed at the Mindanao Institute of Technology, Kabacan, Cotabato, Philippines, under the supervision of the writer. Thirty-four home economics college students enrolled in a course in child development and guidance constituted the sample of the target population. The college sample was divided equally at random: an experimental group using the PI modules, and a control group using lecture and discussion on equivalent subject matter. The PI modules were further tested with the fourth year and first year high school students to determine appropriateness of the program to grade level.

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Two PI modules on selected concepts in child development and guidance developed by the writer were found effective when formally tested with the college sample of the target population. Students from the college experimental group as well as from the control learned significantly from their instructions. Thus Hypothesis 1 was rejected. In comparing the mean posttest scores of both groups in the college sample, the initial differences in terms of pretest, cumulative GPA and English language proficiency were equated. The experimental group learned as well as the control. Thus Hypothesis 2 was accepted. The adjusted mean of the experimental group was slightly higher than that of the control but the difference was not statistically significant. For Hypothesis 3 the only correlation between the variables that was found significant for both groups was that between MGS and GPA. Students with higher GPA obtained better scores from the criterion test. Hypothesis 3a was therefore rejected. Between the MTELP score and GPA a positive and significant relationship existed only in the control group. Thus Hypothesis 3b on the foregoing pair of variables was rejected for the control, and accepted for the experimental. All the other paired variables in Hypothesis 3b were positively correlated but not statistically significant. It is interesting to note that in this study the students from the experimental group learned from the PI modules regardless of whether they were found to favor this form of instruction or not. In testing the PI modules for appropriateness to grade level, the mean of the college experimental group was found superior to both the fourth year and first year high school groups. Thus a conclusion is reached that the PI modules were appropriate for the target population for whom the material was designed.

238. MAJUL, Cesar Adib (Ph. D.). "The Political and Constitutional Ideas of the Philippine Revolution of 1896-1898." Cornell University, 1957. 310 pp. Source: DAI, XVII, 5 (1957), 1108-1109. XUM Order No. 20,839.

This study deals with the political ideas of the Revolution of 1896-1898. These were the ideas that laid the foundations for the principles of political obligation and the necessary limitations on a coercive authority that was to be distinctly Filipino. They also referred to institutions within the state--principally the church.

The study also attempts to determine the manner in which these political concepts were formed and then relate them to the actual historical events. Several relations were investigated: How these ideas were instrumental in bringing about the revolutionary uprising against Spain; the extent to which these ideas were ad hoc rationalizations which arose after the upheavals; and the extent to which revolutionary thinkers consciously used these ideas to channel the course of the Revolution. Since the Revolution established a government to secure the political aspirations of the people, the study was extended to proposed governmental techniques. This involved an analysis of different constitutional ideas discussed in the Malolos Congress.

The ideas of the Revolution are shown to have originated in the social class known as ilustrados. Through the continuous agitations of the "propagandists," the masses of the country became more aware of the political and social inequalities in their country. When the masses were stirred, a popular leadership was born. The mass leaders were voicing, though less clearly, the general line of thinking laid down by the ilustrados. Although the actual uprising in 1896 was the work solely of the masses, the ilustrados in 1898 were asked to play an important role in the organization and consolidation of a movement that had attained national proportions.

The political thinkers of the Revolution like Rizal, Jacinto, Mabini, Calderon, and others, were voicing ideas and demands that were those of the eighteenth century Enlightenment. This was evidenced by the manner in which they believed in the theory of natural law and natural rights. They also had the belief that man had great intellectual and moral potentialities that tended towards progress. Individualism was emphasized, even though it was maintained that man had a definite position in society and that it was his duty to work for the welfare of all. The demand that a revolution should be "moral" and its protagonists exemplify virtue, if the Revolution was to succeed, points out a firm belief in the moral order of the universe.

Discussions in the Malolos Congress showed the desire for a strong centralized government. Yet, they expressed differences in the approach to the structure of government--whether the executive or legislative power was to predominate. The fact that Congress promulgated a constitution containing an extensive and detailed bill of rights throws light on why a revolution was launched.

The Revolution was primarily a social movement. There was a decision to construct a new way of life and a new society. The attempt to secularize the parishes and satisfy the aspirations of the Filipino clergy, the redefinition of the ties of the church and the people, the fear of friars and caciques as economic powers, the demand for education as a right, and the looking towards government as a positive agent to secure individual rights and social well-being; all demonstrate the social aspect of the Revolution. Both revolution and independence were clearly recognized as tools aiming to establish a Filipino government based on consent. When the goals of the Revolution were not immediately realized, the struggle for independence was carried on along peaceful political methods. The final culmination of this peaceful struggle was the granting of independence to the Filipinos by the United States.

Perla Quidangen Makil

239. MAKIL, Perla Quidangen (Ph. D.). "In Search of the Philippine Influentials: Technique and Change." University of Michigan, 1979. 159 pp. Source: DAI, XLI, 1A (July, 1980), 430-A. XUM Order No. 8015059.

This dissertation results from a search for the Philippine influentials which was first made in 1969, two years before the imposition of martial law in the Philippines. The search was concluded with a replicate study in 1975, two years after martial law was imposed. The method employed in the search is the reputational technique whereby 200 respondents, chosen through the snowball method, were interviewed. Respondents were from the Metropolitan Manila area.

The data analysis--certainly a modest one--has both a methodological and a substantive thrust. Methodologically, it reexamines the reputational approach to community-power studies, testing its validity through data collected at two points in time and under different political systems prevalent at the time of the research. Does the reputational technique capture societal events which may have a significant impact on a community's power structure? This is a major question investigated in this dissertation. Ample evidence is presented to show that the reputational technique is a reliable barometer which registers changes and events that significantly affect a community's power structure.

Substantively, the form of the Philippine influence structure before and after the imposition of martial law is investigated. Through the reputational technique it is determined that there is a more pluralistic structure prior to martial law imposition than after, when a concentration of power--largely in the executive branch of government--emerged.

The areas of religion and education turned out to be mildly deviant cases in that while respondents in all other areas observed a greatly concentrated power structure in the Philippines in 1975, those from education and religion saw a more differentiated structure, especially in perceiving more influentials in their own areas than in others.

This finding reflects the retention by these areas of their distinctiveness after the imposition of martial law, much more than did the other institutional areas, of course, with the sole exception of government.

240. MAMINTA, Rosario Esperanza (Ed. D.). "An Investigation on the Language Structures in Beginning Readers Compared with the Language Structures Taught for Oral Proficiency in the Teaching of English as a Second Language in the Philippines." University of British Columbia, 1969. Source: DAI, XXXI, 1A (July, 1970), 300-A.

The major assumption underlying this investigation was that pupils learning English as a second language read more effectively if beginning reading materials consist of language structures which are taught in the oral language program. It was believed that structures learned in the oral language course would reinforce reading skills and vice versa.

Research evidence based on modern linguistic theory has indicated that patterns of form and arrangement of words, not words in isolation alone, contribute to meaning. It has also been shown that comprehension is a function of the degree of similarity between the language structures learned orally and the language structures used in the reading passage.

The present study analyzed and compared the language structures in the beginning readers with the language structures which are taught for oral proficiency in the teaching guides for English used in Philippine schools. The T-unit, which is the shortest grammatically independent segment of language, consisting of one independent clause and all subordinate clauses attached to it, was the basis of syntactic analysis and measurement.

The language samples from the oral language guides and the reading texts were analyzed and compared on two levels. The first-level analysis was concerned with the underlying basic patterns and the length of the T-units as well as other related structural features. The second level analysis determined the kinds and number of constructions produced by sentence-combining transformations.

The analysis of data revealed that there was a close similarity between the kinds of basic patterns which occurred in the oral language materials and in the readers. The frequency of occurrence centered around a few commonly used patterns. There were relatively more rare patterns in the reading passages than in the oral language materials.

The length of the T-unit in the readers was greater than in the oral language materials. The greater length of the T-unit in the reading texts was due to the greater number of subordinate clauses and non-clausal constructions produced by sentence-combining transformations.

The kinds and functions of constructions resulting from sentence-combining transformations which occurred with highest frequencies in the reading texts were similar to those in the oral language materials. But the data also indicated that types of rare constructions occurred more frequently in the reading passages than in the oral language materials.

The greater number of sentence-combining transformations reflects greater complexity of language structures in the reading passages compared to the language structures in the oral language materials. This finding suggests that when the Filipino pupil begins to read English, his oral language background seems inadequate to cope with the difficulty level related to the complexity of structures of his reading materials.

Further investigations are necessary to provide more useful guidelines for evolving effective reading materials in second language teaching. Suggested follow-up studies in second language classroom situations include comparison of comprehension between commonly used patterns and rare patterns, an investigation to establish a hierarchy of difficulty of the different kinds of sentence-combining transformations, and a quantitative study to determine the relationship of comprehension to the number of transformations in a reading passage.

241. MANALAD-SITOMPUL, Dana (Ph. D.). "Measuring Cognitive Achievement in a Population Education Program Designed for Sixth Grade Pupils in the Philippines." University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 1977. 162 pp. Source: DAI, XXXVIII, 10B (April, 1978), 4721-B-4722-B. XUM Order No. 7804160.

The purpose of this study was to develop a valid and reliable test instrument to measure the achievement of the Philippine elementary school children in population education. Specifically, the test was designed to determine:

1. The extent to which students in rural and urban schools have been exposed to population education.
2. The performance level of students related to exposure to population education and to rural-urban classification.
3. The difference, if there is, in the performance level among the students on the basis of father's occupation, size of the family, and sex.

To enable the investigator to assess the pupils' level of performance in population education in the fourth through sixth grades, the use of a criterion-referenced measurement was adopted. Preliminary test forms of I, II, III were administered twice to some first year high school students in the schools where population education was implemented. The first tryout test was administered to a total sample of 178 students in the school divisions of Manila and Bulacan. Following this, an item analysis was conducted in order to determine how well individual test items were functioning. The second tryout test was administered to 158 students also in their first year of instruction in Manila and Bulacan high schools. After an extensive analysis of test items, the trial test was revised. The final test forms were readministered to a total of 2,058 students in three school divisions: Manila, Bulacan, and Cavite. The revised test instrument consisted of 63 multiple choice items with each form having twenty-one items. For the final analysis, the MERMAC Test Analysis and Questionnaire Package of the Office of Instructional Resources of the University of Illinois was utilized to elicit the statistical data.

The findings revealed the following:

1. For the percentage of students' exposure to the population education program, it was found that there were some students who were never exposed to the program. While the test data from the Bulacan rural schools revealed the greatest proportion of students who had not yet been exposed to the program, it was also the Bulacan urban schools which showed the highest proportion of students studying about population. Among the topics which had not yet been introduced to the students, topic one, migration, had the highest percentage with 61 percent non-exposure, whereas topic three, rapid population growth, had the lowest at seven percent.

2. The data for the students who were exposed to the program for one year disclosed that the Bulacan urban schools had the highest percentage of students studying eight of the nine topics in the curriculum, with the percentage ranging from approximately 66 to 90 percent. While the pattern of curriculum implementation is similar across all schools and topics, rural schools have a slightly lower proportion of students studying the new curriculum. Also, topics one, four, eight, and nine have thus far received the least emphasis by the schools.

3. There was a relatively low percentage of the students who had studied population education for two or three years in either the rural or urban schools. The Bulacan urban schools had the lowest proportion of students studying this program. Topic five had the lowest exposure with only one percent of the students sampled

having studied this topic, while topic six had the highest at 22 percent.

4. For the knowledge mean scores of those students who had never been exposed to the program, the Bulacan urban schools achieved the highest knowledge mean scores in five of nine topics. The Bulacan rural schools received the next highest in four of nine topics studied, while Manila and Cavite obtained the lowest mean scores in four of nine topics.

5. The knowledge mean scores of students who had a one-year exposure to the curriculum showed the Bulacan urban school children obtaining the highest of .47 for topic six. The Bulacan rural school children's knowledge achievement scores were quite similar to those of their urban school classmates, with Bulacan urban and rural school children obtaining the highest scores and followed by the Manila and Cavite rural school children.

6. For those who had two or three years of exposure, it can be observed that the Bulacan school children generally achieved the highest knowledge mean scores with the exception of topics two and three. The scores of the Manila school children followed closely those of the Bulacan schools, while the Cavite rural schools had the lowest knowledge scores in six out of the nine topics.

7. There was generally consistent relationship between students' knowledge scores and father's occupational status, with the students whose fathers are in professional fields achieving the highest scores and those whose fathers are unskilled workers achieving the lowest scores.

8. The highest knowledge mean scores are achieved by those students who come from families having one or two children and the lowest scores were recorded by children from large families.

9. Girls achieved higher scores than did boys with the greatest differences occurring in home economics, followed by health education and social studies.

Based on the findings, one of the conclusions drawn was that the relatively low knowledge test scores of the Filipino children can be attributed to several factors including lack of student exposure to the program, inadequate preparation of teachers for the implementation of the program and students' difficulty in interpreting test items written in the English language.

242. MANALANG, Priscilla S. (Ph. D.). "A Philippine Rural School: Its Cultural Dimension." University of Pittsburgh, 1971. 464 pp. Source: DAI, XXXII, 12A (June, 1972), 6838-A-6839-A. XUM Order No. 72:16,948.

This study analyzes the meaning of a Philippine rural elementary school from the point of view of the teachers, school heads, parents and community leaders. Its purpose was to determine the role of the school in the community, to derive some implications for teacher education and to suggest a more realistic definition of its role in terms of developmental change.

To achieve these purposes the researcher took up residence for one year in a lakeshore village. The anthropological case study approach was used, primarily dependent upon participant-observation in the school and community. Interviews and questionnaires were instruments used to gather data.

Two census interviews were done. The first was on a sample of sixty households, the second on the total universe of 321 households representing 326 families. Basic demographic data, attitudes towards the school, and reactions to a new electrification project were the topics covered by the second questionnaire. Another questionnaire was filled out by teachers and school heads. It contained more detailed questions on the school in addition to basic demographic and professional data. The school and community were the scene of frequent observations as well as of participation in celebrations, meetings, classroom lessons and daily routines of life. Three teachers, two school heads, and three parents and leaders became key informants. Their views provided the basis for inferring the meaning of the school.

The village had an essentially agrarian economy in which the majority pursued dual or multiple occupations to maintain a subsistence level of living. It was made up originally of farmer-migrants from another town who had failed in their struggle to own the land they tilled. In their new settlement, established in 1929, many of them were still involved in farming, although there was an increasing diversity of occupational activity. A network of stores served as a market. There was a new regional electrification project located in the village that promised to alter the local socio-economic structure in the long run. Family, kin and neighborhood were the socializing units for the individual who learned the primary values of obedience, age-respect, submission to authority, a deep and proper sense of indebtedness for favors received and good interpersonal relations. Detailed ethnographic data obtained to describe the socio-economic setting of the school were organized to form an appendix which includes physical setting, history, demographic characteristics, households and family types, occupational structure, leadership and authority, and the life cycle.

The school was expected by its staff, parents and community leaders to teach children basic literacy skills and proper conduct based on the primary values previously mentioned. The mandates of the school bureaucracy, however, also made it a model for money-raising to finance physical improvement, the preparation of reports and the performance of ritual activities. This bureaucracy promoted an ideology of community development for the schools which was politically profitable for it, but a failure at the village and school level. The views of the subjects of study on what the school means are presented in a summative chart in the concluding chapter. It includes those aspects of school culture drawn from the ethnographic work on the school, which were significant to community, teachers and the bureaucracy. These were the three R's, proper conduct, physical punishment, language including English and Filipino, community development ideology, curricular innovations, fund-raising and work education.

Analysis of the role that teachers played vis-a-vis the

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formal curriculum and the activities rewarded by the bureaucracy led to implications for teacher education: chiefly fieldwork or residence in a community for the prospective teacher and possibly the teacher educator in order to understand school-community relationships and values, to develop insightful utilization of curricular materials, and perhaps to evolve a new conception of teacher function.

With respect to developmental change the school could support other agencies directly concerned with economic and technological change, and concentrate on improving the quality of life in the classroom and school. The latter can be done through a curriculum that is functional for both pupil and teacher.

But even these modest changes require systemic reforms in the bureaucracy: the adoption of modest and attainable objectives for the schools, the involvement of teachers and community in curriculum design, and the sacrifice of politically profitable platforms that are dysfunctional for pupils, teachers and community.

Other studies on teacher education and different types of Philippine schools are needed to establish a sound basis for educational reform.

243. MANALAYSAY, Raquel Salting (Ed. D.). "An Appraisal of Selected Aspects of the Teacher Education Program at Philippine Union College." Indiana University, 1957. 331 pp. Source: DAI, XVIII, 2 (February, 1958), 513. XUM Order No. 24,834.

The purpose of this study was to make an appraisal of selected aspects of the undergraduate preparation of secondary school teachers at Philippine Union College based on a follow-up of the secondary teacher education graduates from 1951 to 1956.

Three questionnaires and one check list were constructed and used to collect data relative to:

1. The nature of the positions held and work performed by the graduates and of the professional and community activities of the graduates.

2. The reasons why non-teaching graduates did not enter the profession.

3. The judgement of graduates relative to the value and adequacy of the education and psychology courses, the student teaching program, and the selected personnel services of the College.

4. The types and degree of seriousness of the difficulties encountered by the beginning teachers as recognized by them and their principals.

5. The principals' appraisal of the selected characteristics of the beginning teachers under their supervision who graduated from the College.

6. The objectives of the teacher education program at Philippine Union College.

Among those responding to the questionnaires were 75.8 per cent of the 91 graduates (of whom 62.3 per cent were teaching and 37.7 per cent were not teaching), 96.1 per cent of the 26 principals, and 80 per cent of the administrators and faculty members in the Department of Education.

The following are some of the conclusions that were warranted by the findings of the study:

1. The beginning teachers who graduated from the College needed to be prepared to teach classes of average size in private schools in rural and suburban areas, to assume normal teaching loads, to sponsor a variety of extra-class activities, and to participate in various community and religious activities.

2. A great majority of the non-teaching graduates who had not taught since graduation from the College would have taught had they been offered a teaching position, and most of those who left the teaching profession would go back to teaching if they were now offered a teaching position.

3. In the judgment of the graduates, student teaching was the most valuable course in the professional sequence; however, the course would have been better if the students had been given the opportunity to do full-time student teaching, to have experience in off-campus student teaching, to do some student teaching in subject fields outside of their major, and to have closer supervision and help from better qualified supervising teachers.

4. The beginning teachers and their principals were in agreement that the majority of the beginning teachers' difficulties were of an instructional nature, but they did not always agree as to the relative seriousness of these difficulties.

5. Although the beginning teachers manifested decided strengths in their adherence to professional ethics, enthusiasm for teaching, and knowledge of subject matter, they lacked preparation in the use of audio-visual materials and equipment.

6. The college administrators and the members of the faculty in the Department of Education at Philippine Union College were in general agreement as to the objectives which should guide the teacher education program.

7. Although some of the objectives of teacher education at Philippine Union College were well achieved by the program, others were only fairly well achieved, and still others were hardly achieved or were not being met at all.

244. MANIAGO, Jo Anne Barker (Ph. D.). "The First Peace Corps: The Work of the American Teachers in the Philippines, 1900-1910." Boston University Graduate School, 1971. 324 pp. Source: DAI, XXXII, 4A (October, 1971), 2013-A-2014-A. XUM Order No. 71-26,450.

Traditionally colonies were acquired for the benefits derived from them by the colonial master. The United States' non-traditional policy of "Benevolent Assimilation" in the Philippines therefore produced unprecedented problems in colonial government. The McKinley Administration appointed two successive commissions to examine the Philippine scene, identify the critical issues, and recommend a comprehensive program of governmental action. The Schurman Commission prepared the initial prospectus. The Taft Commission, which became the first civilian occupation government on September 1, 1900, devised and instituted specific measures of administration based on what it considered to be the duties of the United States toward its colony: one, to establish in the islands a self-governing democracy; and two, to establish a stable economy assuring the inhabitants a decent standard of living and support for the self-governing democracy, as well as providing American businessmen a fertile ground for profitable investment. To accomplish these purposes, the Commissioners optimistically introduced a system of public education. Act 74 provided for a highly centralized structure aiming to achieve mass literacy via primary schools.

The most important element in the entire colonial experiment was the American teacher, the first Peace Corps volunteer, imported without adequate understanding of or preparation for the difficult task he assumed. He found teaching in a local school classroom to be only a minor part of the assignment. Simply surviving under the poor living conditions constituted a large segment of the job and consumed much of his time and energy. The Spanish educational legacy bequeathed poor classroom organization and discipline, rote memorization methods, and a teaching staff ill-trained and poorly paid. Moreover, the Spanish cultural legacy proved incompatible with American societal concepts. The class system of Gente Baja ruled by the Gente Illustrada perpetuated a stratified society where accident of birth determined all opportunities for achievement. Additional problems existed in the newly established American educational structure; rapid changes in organization and administrative personnel, and inadequate communications between the Manila office and local teachers hindered the work and caused misunderstandings. Some of the "recruits" failed to make the grade under these conditions; nevertheless, most teachers, despite the difficulties, succeeded in enlivening the local classroom, teaching teachers, reaching adults through night schools, and braving even the perils of reaching the non-Christian tribes. By 1910 the educators had won the respect of the Filipino people and rightly took pride in their efforts.

Does this success, however, reflect the accomplishment of the interlocking objectives of the Taft Commission? By 1910 the contemporary evaluators assumed the achievement of a self-governing democracy, but detected no substantial gain in economic stability. The first professional survey for the Philippine Public Schools, the 1925 Monroe Survey, concluded that education had produced neither economic stability nor a democratic government. Unable to educate for democracy, the school system fell victim to the Philippine milieu and came to reinforce the social structure out of which grew both economic and social unrest. The Swanson Survey of 1960 and the subsequent appraisals of the Second Peace Corps reiterated the 1925 report.

Today the Philippine Republic, suffering from a serious maldistribution of wealth and opportunity and governed by an elite minority, verges on revolution. Does this threatening crisis conclusively demonstrate that the First Peace Corps failed? Not necessarily. The pioneer teachers could not give freedom as they planned, but they did provide to the Filipino masses the tools for initiating a Filipino version of democracy. The contemporary ferment may yet vindicate the labors of the First Peace Corps and the aspirations of the American Colonial Experiment.

245. MANUEL, Maria Domingo (Ed. D.) "The Cooperative Student Teaching Centers at Wayne State University and Their Practicality in the Northern Luzon Teachers College, Philippines." Wayne State University, 1969. 355 pp. Source: DAI, XXX, 9A (March, 1970), 3835-A-3836-A. XUM Order No. 70-3431.

Cooperative ventures are encouraged through the establishment of Cooperative Student Teaching Centers as settings for practice and study of teaching. Thus, Cooperative Student Teaching Centers began at Wayne State University in January, 1963.

This exploratory and descriptive study investigated six cooperative student teaching centers of the Department of Elementary Education at Wayne State University. It considered the patterns of organization and cooperative elements and structures found in each of those centers.

Purpose

The main purposes of this study were: to describe the Cooperative Student Teaching Centers at Wayne State University; to find out the cooperative elements and structure found in each center and their applicability in the Northern Luzon Teachers College, Philippines; to develop a proposed plan for a cooperative student teaching center at the Northern Luzon Teachers College, Philippines.

The subjects for the study were selected from the group of student teachers and key cooperating personnel assigned to the six Student Teaching Centers of Wayne State University, namely, Regions 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, and 9 in Detroit, Michigan. Specifically, there were twenty administrators, four senior faculty advisers, one representative of the Continuing Education, Detroit Public Schools, twelve college supervisors, and sixty-two student teachers who were involved in the study.

Procedure

Pertinent data have been derived from five sources:

1. Documents from each center which include quarterly reports from the center coordinators, progress reports to the faculty of the Elementary Education Department, Wayne State University, publications about student teaching centers in regional as well as national conventions, letters concerning the centers, memoranda and bulletins about the centers, minutes of supervision committee meetings and handbooks containing standard operating procedures and role definitions.

2. Tape-recorded personal interviews with key cooperating

personnel of the centers.

3. Results of responses of cooperating personnel of the centers to questionnaires.

4. Student teachers' responses to a check list about the cooperative activities of the centers.

5. The research files of the Subcommittee on School-College Relationships of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

Conclusions

The treatment of the data and the analysis presented in this study seem to indicate that a number of significant conclusions are warranted. Some of them are:

1. The concept of the Cooperative Student Teaching Center is sound and promising and its program is well-defined and planned. However, its implementation still leaves room for improvement.

2. The steering committee is a strong force formulating policy relevant to the student teaching program and in planning the activities of the center.

3. The cooperative school activities of most of the centers are in-service education of supervising teachers and college supervisors, the team internship, and continuing teacher education.

4. Decisions of the centers are made not by a single person but by a group working cooperatively together.

5. There is adequate involvement of the schools in the making of decisions at the center.

6. Lines of communication are kept open on a direct and personal basis, through occasional large meetings, statements of operating procedures, and collating reports from meetings, which reports are then forwarded to personnel who are involved. However, channels of communication need considerable strengthening in the centers.

7. The most serious obstacles to program development and/or expansion are financial problems and lack of time for people to work on new programs.

8. The most pressing problems indicated by some center personnel are: frequent changes in school and college personnel, lack of commitment on the part of supervising teachers who prefer to work with other colleges and universities, and scheduling student teachers from a quarter-college term to a school-semester placement.

9. Evaluation of the center program and activities is an area that needs careful consideration.

10. There is a variety of supervisory practices in the cooperative student teaching centers.

11. Student teachers are involved in procedural decisions which affect their work and also in planning the activities of their classroom.

12. Members of the centers are providing satisfactory working conditions for student teachers.

Recommendations

Guided by the results of the present investigation, the writer offers a number of recommendations which are tentative and open for further study, criticism, evaluation, and revision by others. Some of them are:

1. Channels of communication between the school and college should be better established, maintained, and expanded.

2. School and college personnel must continue developing cooperatively operating procedures, administrative structures, and role definitions necessary to meet the demands of local situations.

3. The administrative structure of the center should be developed to insure continuity and flexibility of operations despite turnover of college and school personnel.

4. Policies need to be more operational.

5. Sources for financial aid should be increased to keep the centers operating smoothly and efficiently.

6. Schools involved in the center should be the same every quarter to see the continuity of projects.

7. Giving cooperating teachers university status and the same privileges would "tune up" the work and give them a sense of security as well as recognition.

8. Evaluation of various aspects of the program should be attempted.

These recommendations are offered to help enhance the effective operations of the cooperative student teaching centers.

246. MAQUISO, Elena Granada (Ed. R. D.). "A Study of Indigenous Hymns in the Evangelical Church in the Philippines: Implications for Christian Education." Hartford Seminary Foundation, 1966. 227 pp. Source: DAI, XXVII, 5A (November, 1966), 1278-A. XUM Order No. 66-11,077.

The introductory chapter describes the present attitude in the Philippines toward the place of Western hymns in worship and life of the Evangelical Church today. There is a feeling that since these hymns are not the expression of Filipinos, in language or music, native hymns are needed. A contrasting opinion holds to the continuing usefulness of Western hymns, and skepticism about the desirability of indigenous music for church worship. Present hymns, from Western cultures, translated for Filipino use, are hardly adequate for the quality of Christian education needed in the church today. Christian education is defined and the value of native hymns in Christian education is emphasized. It is believed that indigenous hymns are potentially a more effective vehicle than Western hymns for the communication of the Christian message and for the growth of Evangelical Filipinos in the direction of Christian maturity.

Chapter II discusses nationalism and the nature of the hymns in use today as basic factors underlying the enthusiasm for native hymns. Nationalism has brought to light some basic needs of Filipinos; i.e., need for recognition, acceptance, and equal treatment by others. Nationalism has also awakened people to their capacities and to the importance of their heritage. Their desire for self-development has made them aware of the necessity of modifying or eliminating some of the values which hinder growth. Evangelical Filipinos want to use their own music and language to express their religious sentiments. This enthusiasm for indigenous hymns has been heightened by the nature of the Western hymns presently used: these are cast in thought and musical patterns different from the Filipinos' own, and the inadequate and awkward-sounding translations need revision.

The characteristics of native music are described in Chapter III. The music of those who come from tribal and Christian backgrounds is discussed; some common characteristics are indicated, and some are cited which, while not held in common, can strengthen each tradition. Distinctive characteristics of both traditions are found in movements, scales, intervals, song forms, vocal style, different ways of singing, and in the rituals.

Various ways of appropriating native music and the Cebuano language for church hymns are treated in Chapter IV. Different procedures show how existing melodies might be used as hymn tunes, and examples to illustrate the points are presented. Some original tunes using the characteristics of Filipino music are also provided. Suggestions are made about different ways of singing and about song forms suitable for use in the church.

Some principles and kinds of learning related to the production and singing of Cebuano hymns are discussed in Chapter V. Learning takes place within the context of the people's readiness to produce and sing their hymns; in the modification, alteration, and enhancement of some traditional values; and in the changing ecumenical mood and opportunity for more cordial interpersonal relationships.

Learning situations are indicated in the development of skills, mental activities, and emotional responses related to the use of native hymns. Implications for Christian education suggest that a new Evangelical hymnal might contain not only Filipino hymns, but also other Asian native hymns, as well as useful hymns from the West and other communions that are suitable for use in the Filipino church.

In conclusion, Chapter VI gathers the findings from the preceding chapters and affirms the thesis that native hymns are potentially a more effective vehicle than Western hymns for the educational ministry of the Filipino Evangelical Church. Some problems related to the use of indigenous hymns are indicated. A service of worship using native hymns is included.

247. MARIANO, Pablo Pineda (Ed. D.). "Guides to Developing a Four-Year Pre-Service Educational Program for the Preparation of Elementary School Teachers in the Philippines." Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. 245 pp. Source: Eells, p. 122; and TCCU DIGESTS (1952), pp. 517-519.

DIGEST

The purpose of this project is to offer guides to developing a four-year pre-service education program for the preparation of elementary school teachers in the Philippines. The program developed from these suggestions is intended to be a cooperative endeavor of local teachers colleges, the Department of Education, and the Bureau of Public Schools.

Chapter I gives the setting of the study and points to the need for it by describing briefly the present educational situation in the country.

Chapter II presents a concise description and appraisal of economic, social, and political conditions in the country. The identification of crucial issues and problems of the people, especially in the rural communities, in order to show the bearing of these conditions upon education, and particularly upon teacher education, is the focus of this chapter.

Chapter III describes the present educational system for children and youth. It is shown that the present status of education is not satisfactory because it fails to do what is rightfully expected of the new social setting, namely, to meet the needs of Philippine children and youth today and to improve the living conditions of rural folk. These are the great concerns of education in the country.

Chapter IV gives an analysis of the present pre-service program for elementary school teachers. Attention is called to the failure to educate teachers who are prepared to make the school an integral part of the community it serves, to be active agents working to bring about needed change, to make experiences of children meaningful and to meet their needs and interests. It is also indicated that instead of supplying the public schools with teachers competent to meet their professional responsibilities effectively, the two-year normal schools turn out every year an over supply of non-qualified teachers who cannot meet the new requirements of the service. It is further indicated in this chapter that the crux of the problem lies not in focusing on the Philippine educational system as a whole, but in improving the individual teacher.

Chapter V identifies educational principles and current trends in the United States which are believed to contribute toward a sound teacher education program for elementary school teachers in the Philippines.

Chapter VI offers guides and proposals for a four-year pre-service education program in keeping with the principles developed in Chapter V and with the problems identified in Chapters II through IV. The proposed changes in curriculum development break sharply with the present practices which assume that the purpose of the school is to impart knowledge and develop skills which are prescribed by courses of study. The Philippine schools have a purpose derived from the culture and needs of the child. It is important that the schools provide experiences of everyday living instead of limiting experiences to the content of textbooks and syllabi. They should integrate and balance the experiences of pupils instead of dealing with them disparately. The school should be aware of its responsibility to the Philippine society and serve its community instead of being an institution isolated from the vital currents of living. It should understand children and youth and meet their needs instead of ignoring their differences.

Although the proposed program cannot be determined in advance without a careful study of the needs, resources, and limitations of particular situations, its successful development requires that definite plans and procedures be set for its implementation. Chapter VII offers some recommendations that may serve as guides to action.

248. MARLAY, Ross (Ph. D.). "The Politics of Environmental Protection in the Philippines." Northern Illinois University, 1975. 641 pp. Source: DAI, XXXVI, 10A (April, 1976), 6921-A-6922-A. XUM Order No. 76-8917.

This dissertation examines the formation and implementation of environmental policies in the Philippines, with emphasis on the issue of water pollution in the Greater Manila area. A group-level approach is adopted to describe the struggle between various sectors of the Philippine polity for the policy outcomes they desire.

Filipino values are found to exercise some influence upon the way that issues are defined. However, the play of economic forces is of greater importance in determining the content of government policies, and the rigor with which those policies are enforced. Although professional, civic, and conservationist groups all have an impact on Philippine environmental policy, the substance of that policy is influenced more strongly by economic interests, specifically industrial trade groups. Filipino industrialists have countered demands for expenditures on pollution abatement equipment by deflecting blame for pollution onto the public. This strategy has met with success due to a pervasive "ideology of industrialization" shared by entrepreneurs, policy-makers and environmentalists alike.

The pressures for stronger antipollution laws (from the media, scientists, and fishpond owners", and the counter-pressures for a lenient policy from industrialists, are examined across two different forms of government: the laissez-faire pre-1972 Philippine political system modelled after that of the United States, and the "New Society" of President Ferdinand Marcos. In both cases, economic factors are the most important determinants of policy.

Mounting problems of pollution force the Philippine government to adopt remedial measures. However, the high cost of pollution abatement dictates adoption of temporary strategies such as zoning and industrial dispersal to rural areas.

249. MARQUEZ, Flordelindo Tingson (Ph. D.). "A Comparative Analysis of Culture and the Cultural Content of Printed-Media Advertising in the Philippines and Thailand." University of Wisconsin, 1973. 343 pp. Source: DAI, XXXIV, 12A (June, 1974), 7799-A-7800-A. XUM Order No. 74-9010.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between advertising and culture in two Southeast Asian countries with dissimilar cultures. It was hypothesized that despite this cultural dissimilarity, the cultural contents of advertising in the two countries would be identical because these contents are either influenced by, or adopted from, Western culture. The hypothesis was based on the assumption that advertising, which is a Western invention, is a natural bearer of Western culture.

The countries chosen were the Philippines and Thailand. These choices were inevitable, since one country needed for the study must be Westernized and another non-Westernized. In this respect, the Philippines and Thailand are ideally the cultural antithesis of each other. The Philippines is an overly Westernized country, having been a Spanish colony for four centuries and an American possession for half a century. Thailand, on the other hand, has never been colonized by any Western power.

The procedure called for the analysis of Philippine and Thai printed-media advertisements. These advertisements, which totaled 1,027 for the Philippines and 918 for Thailand, were obtained from two daily newspapers and two weekly magazines published in each country from 1970 to 1972. One of the newspapers and one of the magazines selected from each country are published in the national language of that country, i.e., in Tagalog for the Philippines and in Thai for Thailand. The remaining newspaper and magazine are published in the second language of each country, which is English for both the Philippines and Thailand.

The analysis of the advertisements was based on eight standard and one arbitrary cultural parameters. The standard parameters were male-female roles, the concept of masculinity and femininity, personality type, family type, social class, ethnocentrism, and the concepts of time and space. The arbitrary parameter was the racial image projected in the advertisements. The findings from the analysis were quantified and interpreted, and subsequently compared with findings from sociological and anthropological studies of Philippine and Thai cultures.

The findings showed that the cultural contents of both Philippine and Thai printed-media advertising were generally irrelevant to the indigenous cultures of the two countries. The various cultural parameters were portrayed in advertising in ways that were not reflective--and oftentimes the opposite--of how these parameters operate in the indigenous cultures of the Philippines and Thailand. Furthermore, the portrayal of these parameters was identical in the advertising of the two countries, indicating the common influence of a foreign culture.

This foreign culture was found to be Western. Specifically, it was found that it was not only the advertisements for Philippine and Thai products that had a Western cultural content, but also those for other non-Western products advertised in the Philippines and Thailand. It was also found that the advertisements for Western products, which comprised the majority of products advertised in each of the two countries, never deviated from their Western cultural content. There was no evidence that they attempted to adapt to the indigenous cultures of their host countries. These findings, which are highly supportive of the hypothesis of the study, demonstrate that all printed-media advertising in the Philippines and Thailand have a common Western cultural content. This Western content prevails regardless of the nationality or country of origin of the products advertised.

The findings from the present study suggest two research possibilities for the future. One is research on the cultural contents of advertising in other non-Western countries; another would be research on the effectiveness of Western advertising in particular and of Western mass communications in general in a non-Western environment. If, indeed, advertising is a natural bearer of Western culture, the first research possibility should engender results identical to those of the study just completed.

250. MARSICK, Victoria Jean (Ph. D.). "Training for 'Taking Over': Three Asian Models for Educational Fieldworkers." University of California, Berkeley, 1979. 331 pp. Source: DAI, XL, 7A (January, 1980), 3721-A-3722-A. XUM Order No. 8000438.

Traditional classroom models of education are not always the best way of training village-level educational fieldworkers. This study compares three Asian models that depart from the traditional norm: training for "taking over" in nonformal educational settings in Nepal, Taiwan and the Philippines.

"Taking over" is a perspective, a way of looking at the world. Its essence lies in its colloquial connotation of doing things for yourself. It is a personal perspective.

It is also a social process in which workers help clients "take over" in defining, planning, and carrying out their own change.

This study looks at training for this social dimention. Workers are educational links between villagers and other service professionals. They must establish and maintain educational dialogue in "taking over." As an ideal, dialogue is a total interaction, verbal and nonverbal, that takes place through a voluntary, collaborative trust relationship. Through it, villagers participate in making their own choices.

It is difficult to learn "taking over" by studying about the concept. Hence, these three models provide opportunities for trainees to learn by doing. In training, workers experience some aspect of "taking over," and then reflect on the experience to develop understandings from it.

The Nepal model has village-based health aides live in villages during training, so that they can "see through the eyes of villagers" before helping clients define their health and family planning problems. Trainees then analyze the experience in a group.

The Taiwan model is an adaptation by the Chinese Center for International Training in Family Planning of modular materials developed as prototypes by the East-West Communications Institute. "Taking over" is primarily knowledge-based, with trainees (family planning field workers) taken step-by-step through a set of prepared materials. Learning emphasizes group discussion.

The Philippines model--developed by the Philippines Rural Reconstruction Movement--brings "taking over" into the context of community organization. Communities are helped to "own their own programs" by setting priorities and selecting workers, whom PRRM then trains with an emphasis on problem-solving and skills development.

All three models break down the authority-centered vertical relationship between trainer and trainee, as is necessary between worker and client. I analyze the way in which each model facilitates "taking over," at successive stages before, during and after training. I then compare program and curriculum factors that facilitate or impede "taking over."

The overall program is at least as important as the training curriculum in shaping and maintaining "taking over." I look at the program's cultural readiness, cross-cultural inputs, goals, institutional framework, selection process, and community involvement. In the curriculum itself, I look for "taking over" points: critical areas where learner directiveness assumes greater importance. I start with the extent to which workers and clients are involved in designing the program and training. I then discuss ways in which job-based competencies are interpreted, degree of emphasis on process vs. product outcomes, basing learning in experience, focusing on problems, systematic flexibility in sequencing, peer learning, and participatory methods and materials.

Finally, I conclude by discussing the implications of this training for human development, or the personal perspective of "taking over."

251. MARTIN, Dalmacio (Ph. D.). "The Potentialities of the Cooperative Work-Experience Program for General Secondary Education in the Philippines." Ohio State University, 1954. 447 pp. Source: DAI, XX, 2 (August, 1959), 604-607. XUM Order No. Mic 59-2563.

The purpose of the dissertation is to determine the potentialities of the cooperative work-experience program for the reconstruction of socioeconomic life in the Philippines. Work experience is defined as a practical activity in connection with the production or distribution of goods or services in a real-life situation. It is a cooperative program in the sense that the school and the business, industrial, or civic groups join hands in making education more functional. The earning of salaries or wages by the students is implicit in this program.

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In this study, the writer did three main things:

1. Described in general terms the cultural or national development of the people for whom the program is intended.

2. Traced the development of secondary education in the United States during the last fifty years, particularly with regard to school-work programs.

3. Outlined a plan for the gradual introduction of the program in the Philippines.

The Filipino people: their industrial and educational development.--There seems to be enough evidence to prove that much of the so-called "indolence of the Filipinos" is acquired rather than racially ingrained. Before the coming of the Spaniards it was said that the natives were well provided for through their varied agricultural activities. Misgovernment and exploitation did much to destroy the incentive for conscientious, persevering labor. The aversion to manual labor was not so much a fault of the Filipino race as it was of the nation under which he had been a subject for three centuries.

With respect to education, it was held by Spaniards in the Philippines that education beyond the learning of the Christian doctrine was for people who had leisure or for those who did not have to work with their hands. The supreme happiness for the people, according to one Spanish writer, consisted in being completely ignorant and uneducated.

The Americans built their Philippine educational program against such a colonial influence. Against oppositions and obstacles, they pursued their program of accelerating the cultural development of the people. Work was led back to its high place in the hierarchy of values, although obviously this was no easy task. Education, on the other hand, was soon recognized as the best method for improving the entire nation from generation to generation. There was no boast of a hundred per cent efficiency in this great undertaking, but there was the strong conviction that only through education could a free people learn to manage their own affairs and solve their own problems.

Desiring to overcome the prejudice against manual labor, the early educators at the beginning of the modern period emphasized "industrial work," or activities consisting of handicrafts, shopwork, needlework, gardening, and the like. The new schools took great pride in what the hands of the little children could make for export. To cite just one type of activity in one province, the primary schools of Albay were able to deliver in 1912 one thousand salable baskets on a month's notice. Industrial work seemed to have reached a point where it was in danger of resulting in the exploitation of children.

The high school which was established in 1903 was planned to equal the best in terms of academic standards. This was to make the school attractive to the children of the wealthy and educated classes whose parents had been trained in the scholastic Spanish system. Fortunately, for a period of a quarter-century at least, there were good job opportunities for the graduates of academic high schools in the field of teaching and in various forms of government service. Vocational education in trades and agriculture was attempted early in the history of the present educational system, but any over-emphasis on it out of proportion to the economic and industrial requirements of the country was carefully guarded against. This is perhaps the reason why the high school educator has been charged with a laissez faire yielding to the path of least resistance by some critics; but he is also defended by others who say that it was this policy that kept the system from being split two ways--vocational education for the children of the workingmen and academic education for the college-bound children of the rich families. The general secondary curriculum was introduced in 1932 and carefully nurtured experimentally for almost a decade. The outcome of the trial beginnings might have been favorable to the development of a more functional, work-oriented secondary education if the war had not intervened. To be sure, there had been mistakes and uncertainties in the past educational efforts, but it was part of the new democratic faith to believe that the people would discover those mistakes, correct them, and learn from them.

The effects of the last global war on Philippine life is not hard to imagine. In 1945, conditions in Manila were indescribable. No other people in Southeast Asia suffered so much property damage as the Filipinos. The economic situation had become so menacing by 1949 that in a report to the President of the United States it was said that unless positive measures were taken to deal with the fundamental causes of the difficulties the economic situation would deteriorate further and political disorder would inevitably result. This was the time when communist-inspired hands stalked the Philippine countryside.

The program of total economic and industrial recovery was revitalized with $250 millions of mutual-security aid from the United States spread over a period of five years. The Philippine government is supplementing that amount from time to time in accordance with the terms of a bilateral agreement. This vigorous program of economic recovery could not but affect the thinking of Filipino educators. The high school is now asked more insistently than ever before to forsake its traditional partiality for the "white collar," for such a loyalty to the academic past is no longer good for the student or for Philippine society. As this is being written, the vocational education program is being strengthened in every way possible. The national government has taken over the administration of seven provincial trade schools and of ten agricultural schools the better to provide them with funds. Enrollment in vocational schools of all kinds is increasing, but 55 per cent of the total Philippine high school enrollment is still taking the bargain-counter academic curriculum of the non-public high schools; and the general curriculum of the public high schools are offering vocational courses that are, in the words of one writer, as academic as algebra or geography.

The main educational problem therefore resolves itself more or less into this situation: Work, which is assumed to be an essential part of good general education, is virtually rejected by the non-public secondary schools and is inadequately provided in the public comprehensive high schools. The few vocational schools enroll only between seven and eight per cent of the total Philippine high school youth.

Work-experience programs in the development of the Ameri-

can high school.--A study of educational literature during the last fifty years in the United States has revealed that leading educators have endorsed work experiences as part of general secondary education.

The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 was directed primarily at the development of vocational schools in America, but it also made provisions, through subsequent related legislations, for the extension of Federal financial assistance to the students in the comprehensive high schools taking certain part-time work programs. J. Franklin Bobbitt, in *The Curriculum*, and the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education advocated some form of work experience for the high school.

The American Youth Commission, through its studies during and after the depression, advocated work-experience programs as a means of adapting secondary education to the vast majority of American youth. The study of 13,000 Maryland youth revealed that two-thirds of them declared economic security to be their most urgent personal need. The final 1942 report of the Commission pointed out that all youth regardless of sex will usually profit from the experiences of a job.

The war years also made work programs a means of keeping youth in school while they were helping in defense jobs or in employments that were necessary in the normal conduct of civil life. The efforts of the National Association of Secondary School Principals and of the Educational Policies Commission to develop good work-study programs during the emergency seems to have paid off in the continued interest in cooperative work experience long after the hostilities were over. Designs for postwar education by the members of the John Dewey Society, the American Association of School Administrators, and Commission on Life Adjustment Education gave prominent place to work-experience programs.

Ten selected high schools in five states--Minnesota, Ohio, Indiana, New York, Pennsylvania--were visited by the writer in 1952 and in 1953. The visits supplemented the descriptions of the work programs in the educational literature; they afforded an opportunity to see the programs in action. Highlights of the observation include among others:

1. The procedures for undertaking an occupational survey, such as the 1949 survey in Connersville, Indiana.
2. The method of publicity employed in Batesville, Indiana, and Depew, New York.
3. The role of guidance and counseling services, as in Lancaster, New York; Duluth, Minnesota; and Butler, Pennsylvania.
4. The scheduling of students so that one half of the school day is spent in school and the other half in "live" jobs.
5. The concern for related instruction in all the places visited, but particularly in Troy and Van Wert, Ohio.
6. The criteria for the selection of good work stations.
7. The emphasis everywhere that students must move progressively forward in the various phases of the job.

A study of the literature and observations of actual programs indicate agreement among educators on the following objectives.

1. To hold in school for a year longer those students who may drop out from lack of interest or lack of means.
2. To provide the students with vocational exploration and guidance.
3. To improve the opportunities for life adjustment of the large number of youth who have aimed at general secondary education and are not thinking of continuing in college.
4. To protect the learning status of those who are beginning to become a part of the industrial production environment.
5. To help the students to avoid child-labor exploitation or unsafe employments.

6. To foster the habit of thrift among the students.

7. To promote appreciation of and respect for manual labor.

From the standpoint of the students, the objectives may be stated in the following terms:

1. To earn money while finishing high school.

2. To know how to plan for a future job by actually having one.

3. To acquire the skills as well as the habits and traits necessary for success.

In the places visited by the writer, the percentage of the seniors taking the program varies, ranging from 60 per cent in one small city in New York to 10 per cent in a city in Pennsylvania. The parents, whose written consent had to be secured before a pupil could be admitted into the program, seemed to have merely followed the wishes of their children. The employers met by the writer seemed to be generally in sympathy with the program and what it is trying to accomplish.

For Philippine education, the implications of the American trends and practices are quite clear.

1. The period of stress is the time for fundamental curriculum change. The program of economic and social rehabilitation in the Philippines seems to be the clue to fundamental curriculum reorganization in many directions, but most promisingly in the area of work-experience education.

2. The emphasis on education for all American youth is an inspiring idea that should make Philippine educators work ceaselessly for the enrollment of all Filipino boys and girls of high school age. This, of course, underlines the heavy responsibility of designing a high school curriculum that will meet the needs of youth rather than perpetuate traditional standards or the war for academic units.

3. Honest work is respectable. It has a definite educational value.

Plan of a work-experience program for the Philippines.--A work-experience program for the Philippines is proposed in accordance with the following guiding principles:

1. The new cooperative work-experience curriculum should be introduced gradually.

2. This program should be introduced only in those communities which have been educated to the point where the local officials community leaders, and the teachers and students ask for it.

3. The few schools where the program will be tried should be given every possible help in order to avoid failure.

4. The laws on labor and wages should be upheld by the school on all occasions.

Perhaps one of the first steps in planning for the program is the formulation of purposes or objectives in the language of the particular community which the program should serve. This should not be viewed as a mere formality, for then it would have no value. Properly understood, the objectives should be a guide against floundering.

The following suggestions will make the experimental setup clearer:

1. The new program will affect only the senior year of the comprehensive high school. It will include both boys and girls. Students must be at least 16 years of age to be permitted to enroll in the program.

2. The program will only be for the students who desire it. Those who do not want to take the program can follow the usual schedule of work in school shops and school projects.

3. Introducing the program in many places at the beginning may be inadvisable. On the basis of the lessons learned when the general curriculum was first intro-

duced in 1932, it seems proper to suggest that not more than four high schools should offer it in the beginning. The high schools where the program may first be tried should be of the following types: one large city high school; one medium-sized city high school; one high school in a medium-sized town; and one high school in a small rural town.

A schedule such as the following may serve as the in-school phase of the work-study program:

	Minutes Per Week
Related Language Instruction	300
Related Social Studies	300
Related Instruction and Occupational Problems	300
	900

It represents a new departure from the usual method of subject-matter "addition and subtraction," and yet it is conservative enough to show some relationship with the program to which the people have been accustomed. The local communities will reserve the right to approve or change the schedule in accordance with their best judgement.

The proposed schedule will keep the students in school for three hours of schoolroom work daily. To go beyond this total number of minutes may make the schedule too heavy considering that a half-day of at least three hours will be spent in part-time employment.

The financing of the program is an important consideration. Where people are willing to support the program because it is good education, they may be expected to approve a higher tuition rate or to insist on a larger transfer of funds from the provincial government. A careful study of probabilities will save much disappointment later. The national government may also be expected to shoulder at least part of the financial responsibility since it is a program that is so closely related to the national objective of a balanced and diversified economy.

What are the potentialities of the work-experience program for the Philippines?

1. The youth will find in the program the answers to some of their strivings for financial gain and for the mental and emotional health that grows with the feeling of security, recognition, and the sense of achievement.

2. The home or family will find in this program an opportunity to convert a few easily wasted hours into values that can make for a more orderly and wholesome home life.

3. The school, if it has the requisite humility, will find in it a great lesson in institutional cooperation.

4. The business and industrial groups in the community will see in this program a source of informed help taught in the value of work and skilled in certain activities which have a recognized place in the adult world.

5. The country will see in it an opportunity to accelerate the program of economic and industrial development.

252. MARTIN, James David (Ph. D.). "American Influence in the Philippines as a Factor in Philippine National Development." Southern Illinois University, 1974. 425 pp. Source: DAI, XXXVI, 2A (August, 1975), 1067-A-1068-A. XUM Order No. 75-16,274.

This study of Philippine-American relations is designed to acquaint the reader with the significant impact of the joint developmental efforts of the two countries upon nation-building in the Islands and upon the evolution of Filipino nationalism. The study focuses upon three subject areas: educational, military and economic development. The thesis of the study is that Filipino nationalists were and are socialized by the aid of and in reaction to joint developmental programs carried out in the Philippines by the two countries in these three areas.

In the field of education Filipinos reacted favorably to increased educational opportunities offered by Americans after the Spanish-American War. The educational system developed by the Americans during the Colonial period was incorporated by Filipinos into the educational systems developed during the Commonwealth period and after World War II when the Philippines gained its independence. A major practice in the American educational system, that of socializing the citizens through the school system, was adapted for socializing the citizens of the Philippines. To this end, joint Philippine-American programs were developed for the Philippine schools. Those programs were implemented through elementary and secondary pilot projects, text books production projects, vocational schools and community schools which were designed to integrate the entire community into the school system. College instructors and their students also received in-country training as well as overseas training which indirectly contributed to national development and the development of nationalism. In addition, the U. S. Peace Corps was employed to promote the political socialization of Filipinos. Filipino nationalism developed as a result of that socialization and in reaction to the implementation of educational programs.

As in the educational realm many of the joint military programs developed by the Americans and Filipinos during the Colonial period were adapted by the Filipinos during the Commonwealth and Post-Independence periods. In addition, the political climate at the end of World War II was such that Filipinos requested and received American military support in the Islands as well as American military aid and training. The Filipinos felt that they needed the protection and training. Such assistance strengthened national security, but, at the same time Filipino nationalists reacted to what they felt were situations where national sovereignty and integrity were compromised by the presence and demands of the Americans. Again nationalism developed and the nation developed with the positive aspects of the joint military programs in the Islands, but nationalism also developed as a reaction to the presence of the American military in the Philippines.

As in the educational and military realms joint economic programs of the Americans and Filipinos during the Colonial period were also adopted by Filipinos during the Commonwealth and Post-Independence periods. While Filipinos felt that favorable trade policies encouraged one crop colonial economies many desired and received favorable trading relationships with the United States after World War II. Economic advantages demanded by the government of the United States for Americans in the Philippines were the source of additional fears that economic relations would be all too favorable to the United States. When economic reform and rehabilitation offers were tied to such favorable economic relations nationalists reacted unfavorably although many reforms were accepted with displeasure. In most cases the fears of nationalists were unfounded. Trading relations were favorable to the Philippines. Economic aid promoted tax reform, land reform, health facilities, agricultural development and improvements in industry and transportation. Therefore, again, economic aid promoted nation-building and nationalism both directly and as nationalists reacted to the joint programs.

283. MARTIN, Tunnie, Jr. (Ph. D.). "Differential Response of Rural Communities to Modernization: A Study of a Philippine Trade Area." Cornell University, 1971. 218 pp. Source: DAI, XXXII, 1A (July, 1971), 552-A-553-A. XUM Order No. 71-17,652.

Studies of social change in the rural community have focused most often on the behavioral changes effected among individuals. They have been examined as innovators, adopters and producers. Tremendous changes for individual farmers have been catalogued. The quality and type of the residential community have assumed or implied such attributes as education, socio-economic status and formal participation on the individual level. Recent research in the United States and in some developing countries of Africa and Latin America indicate the importance that the group context has on behavioral change.

The present study has sought to offer a typology of rural communities based on their adoption character utilizing factor analysis to reduce several group properties to a few underlying structural dimensions. It has used the discriminant analysis of several natural groups to test the ordering of the barrios. Further it employs a theoretical framework utilizing the concept of differentiation to evaluate variation among community types. The Young formulation which defines differentiation as the publicly discriminated meaning areas and refers to the individual's or social system's capacity to process diverse kinds of cultural information is used. Improved farm and home practices, the post office, the theater as well as household size and farm practice awareness are considered to represent new meaning areas. The community adoption character evolved through factor analysis of these seven gross indicators constitute the dependent variable of barrio differentiation. Eleven individual-level attributes such as geographic isolation, occupational status, economic status, participation and a rational outlook, etc., are aggregated to show the barrio context. These comprise the independent variables.

The survey data was gathered from 362 households in 27 Philippine barrios and utilized to examine the relation of the differentiated locality group types to a set of socio-economic and communication variables and to show the effects of geographic isolation on these relationships.

The first hypothesis that rural barrios in a Philippine trade area are likely to differ on a composite set of group properties and that difference is related to a selected number of socio-economic, communication and ecological attributes was supported by the data. The second hypothesis stating that among differentiated type barrios, those less isolated from the market center showed a greater degree of association with the independent variables was generally supported. A third hypothesis revealed a positive relationship within the barrio type, between their adoption character and individual attributes such as education, agency contact, rational outlook and participation both formal and political voting were found to be highly associated at both individual and group levels.

The study found that at the group level, occupational and economic status seem to have no direct or consistent effect on the barrio adoption pattern. It also found that education, rational orientation, agency contact, political voting and geographic isolation have some high degree of cor-

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relation with the adoption character in all barrio structural types.

The findings of this study have practical implication for programs of planned change or community development. Communities do order themselves in terms of differentiation. Utilizing this knowledge change agents may know where to emphasize certain features of the program and services they have to offer. They may better focus on such questions as where the greatest use will be made of agency contact, how important are rewards to a community's effort of "break out" of isolation, what should be the expected rate of use of certain innovations which might be brought into communities exhibiting different levels of differentiation. Such knowledge could create shortcuts in the decision-making process about where to place such resources as time and money.

254. MARTINEZ Y MALAYA, Jesus Isabelo (Ed. D.). "Guides for Developing Graduate Division Curricula at the Philippine Normal College." Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. 212 pp. Source: Eells, p. 122; and TCCU DIGESTS (1953), pp. 553-554.

The purpose of this project report is to set up guides for developing graduate curricula on the Master's level calculated to produce progressive leadership in elementary education. The need for this study and the graduate curricula envisioned stems from the facts that:

1. The College charter authorizes their establishment.
2. Current Master's programs in the Philippines are deemed unsatisfactory for developing leadership in community-school education.
3. The professional preparation of personnel now manning the schools needs upgrading to meet increased demands on educational leadership.

The curricula proposed are designed in broad outline only and they are limited by the fact that they provide preparation for only four professional positions, namely, the public-school superintendent, the public elementary-school principal or supervisor, the college teacher in the professional sequence of the undergraduate teacher-education curriculum, and the supervisor of student teaching or the cooperating teacher in the elementary school.

The procedures used in the project include:

1. A brief study of Philippine society and education.

2. A general analysis of current Master's programs in education in the Philippines.

3. The formulation of guides for developing the proposed graduate curricula for the Philippine Normal College.

4. Plans for implementing the proposed program.

The brief study of Philippine society depicts existing social conditions in the country and presents the basic problems of the culture which relate mainly to the necessity of increasing the economic productivity of the Filipino and raising his living standards, developing and enriching the native culture, and promoting and guiding the healthy growth of democracy in the land. The chapter on the overall educational picture describes existing curricula below the graduate level and presents current educational problems and trends, particularly in connection with the community-school movement. The analysis of current Master's programs in education brings to light explanations for the mushroom growth of such programs, their unsatisfactory characteristics, and their general lack of orientation to the community-school philosophy undergirding the public school system. The most important chapter in the project report deals at length with the guides for developing the Master's program at the Philippine Normal College. It presents the basic principles for developing the program, its four basic objectives and curriculum design, the specific objectives of and proposed courses for each phase of the program, and other requirements for completing the work towards the Master's degree. The chapter on implementing the proposed program deals with ways and means of organizing, administering, financing, staffing, and otherwise providing it with adequate facilities. This chapter closes the report with suggestions for the gradual implementation of the program and for its cooperative development by all persons and groups with a definite stake and interest in it.

255. MARTIN-VALDÉS, Matilde (Ed. D.). "An Exploratory Study of Reported Personal Problems of a Group of Women Students in the College of Education, University of the Philippines." University of Buffalo, 1954. 222 pp. Source: Eells, p. 122; Dissertation, pp. i-iii.

This study has been conducted to discover the most common problems of a selected group of women college students in the Philippines and to determine the existence of possible relationship between their reported problems in eight major areas and certain background factors, both environmental and personal. This investigation has also gone into the discovery of relationship between number of reported problems in the eight major areas and achievement as measured by academic success and success in practice teaching.

Eighty-seven junior women students from the College of Education of the University of the Philippines who were enrolled in "Introduction to Guidance" courses served as the subjects of this study. A survey was made of their problems and difficulties in eight major problem areas through the use of a modified problem checklist adapted from a list of conditions of difficulty prepared by Arthur Jones. Other information and data were secured from school records, interviews, and personal documents prepared by the subjects.

The problem checklist data revealed that all the subjects had reported problems in the School and Personality areas. The other areas were found to be responsible for students' difficulties in the following order, which is according to the frequency of problems reported by the sample: social, leisure, health, home, vocation, and religion.

The study of relationship was confined to the investigation of the eight problem areas and certain background factors which were suggested by data and information culled from students' records, interviews, and personal documents, as well as from the writer's own personal experience and observations gathered through many years of work in the field of education. Results show that there are significant relationships between number of reported problems in seven of the eight major areas explored and certain environmental and personal factors. Other findings indicate that there is no significant relationship between number of problems reported in the Personality area and factors investigated. There is no significant relationship seen between number of reported problems in any area and academic success. There is a significant relationship between number of problems reported by this sample in the Social area and success in practice teaching.

From these results one can say of this sample and others of which it may be typical that there is need for some student personnel service such as counseling and special corrective and remedial courses to help the students cope with their personality and school difficulties. Other problem areas which could be benefited by more attention and some research are the social and leisure areas which are responsible for a large number of this sample's difficulties.

Suggested research projects and investigations in the field of student personnel work will be beneficial not only to this sample and other present day college students and existing public institutions like those in this study but will serve a long range purpose of modifying and improving the islands' system of education, thus indirectly serving future students in higher education.

256. MATEO, Leonardo G. (Ph. D.). "A Study of the Problems of the Third, Fourth, and Fifth Year Minor Seminarians in the Diocesan Seminaries in the Philippines." Ford-

Leonardo G. Mateo

ham University, 1964. 372 pp. Source: DAI, XXV, 3

(September, 1964), 1750. XUM Order No. 64-8585.

This investigation sought to determine the problems, needs, and other relevant information about the minor seminarians in the Philippines. The subjects of this study were 740 in the diocesan seminaries Filipino minor seminarians representing 22 of the 23 diocesan minor seminaries in the country and accounting for 96.86 per cent of the total third-fourth-fifth year minor seminary population. Their C. A. ranged from 12.50 to 33.75 years; their mean C. A. was 16.68 years with a SD of 2.23 years.

The specific problem areas investigated were the following: vocational, academic, financial, social, spiritual, health, recreational, and sex problems, and study habits. The area of their biggest problem was likewise sought. Tests of significance were made.

This study was deemed significant because a reliable and comprehensive reference work on the diocesan minor seminarians in the Philippines did not seem to exist. It did not, however, presume to investigate all the possible problem areas, nor all the possible problems in a specific area.

The survey method was employed in this investigation. A check list consisting of two principal parts and containing 143 items was constructed by the investigator. The statistics employed were the percentage, mean, range, standard deviation, critical ratio, and ranking.

In the analysis of the results, it was found that various professional occupations ranked first among the occupations of the parents of the seminarians.

The mean average marks of both the fourth and the fifth year seminarians were significantly higher than those of the third year.

A very significant difference was found between the number of seminarians who graduated from the Catholic, public, and non-sectarian schools, on both the elementary and secondary levels. The Catholic schools were relatively or proportionately the more fruitful source of vocations to the priesthood than the public or non-sectarian schools. Furthermore, the seminarians coming from the Catholic high schools seemed to possess a more solid or stable vocation than those coming from the public or non-sectarian high schools.

No significant difference was found in the number of seminarians who were related to priests and those who were not.

Comparing the attitude of the mother and father of the seminarians towards vocation, the boy's mother would be more likely to encourage his desire to enter the seminary than his father.

The number of seminarians who were altar boys before their entrance to the seminary was significantly higher than those who were not; the altar boys society seemed to be a factor in the priestly vocation of many boys.

The seminarians who had benefactors were significantly more numerous than those who did not have them.

Comparing the mean scores of the three year levels of seminarians on various specific problem areas, no significant difference was found with regard to academic problems. On the social problems, the fourth year scored significantly higher than the third or the fifth year; the fourth year group probably had more social problems than the third or fifth year groups. On the spiritual problems, the fifth year scored significantly lower than the third or fourth year groups; the fifth year probably had fewer spiritual problems than the fourth or third year. On the recreational and health problems, only the fourth and the fifth year groups differed significantly. With regard to study habits, the fifth year scored significantly lower than the third or the fourth year; the fifth year probably had better study habits than the third or fourth year.

Combining the scores on the academic, social, spiritual, health and recreational problems and study habits, the fourth year obtained the highest mean score; the fifth year obtained the lowest. The fifth year differed significantly from the fourth year; the fourth year did not differ significantly from the third year.

As a general conclusion, the fifth year group probably had the fewest problems.

257. MATEO, Maria Luisa (Ph. D.). "A Study of Student Role Perceptions in the Governance of the University of the Philippines." University of Southern California, 1976. Source: DAI, XXXVIII, 1A (July, 1977), 127-A.

During the 1960s, college and university students all over the world revolted against the traditional role they had played in higher education, a role which often excluded them from institutional decision-making. Student desire to participate in institutional governance was manifested through strikes, protest, and political action. In developing countries like the Philippines, concern for student participation took on the added dimension of linkage between higher education and national development.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine student perceptions of their roles, actual and desired, in the academic governance of the University of the Philippines. In this connection, the study also sought to:

1. Identify areas of concern where perceptual congruence exists.

2. Determine the relationship, if any, between student perceptions of their desired role and age, sex, marital status, year in school, hometown, degree objective, and major field of study.

3. Determine the relationship, if any, between student perceptions of personal involvement and freedom to participate in campus governance and age, sex, marital status, year in school, hometown, degree objective, and major field of study.

Procedure

The nature of the desired information necessitated construction of a survey instrument which was mailed to 900 full-time students at the Diliman and Los Baños campuses of the University of the Philippines from July through September of 1974. Three hundred ninety-nine students responded by returning a completed survey instrument. Data from completed questionnaires were coded, assigned weights, and punched on cards for entry into the computer. The chi-square test of significance, Pearson product-moment test of correlation, and one-way analysis of variance were utilized in this study.

Findings

The study established that:

1. Students at the University of the Philippines were dissatisfied with their role in all areas of institutional governance.
2. Students wanted to become active participants in all areas of academic governance.
3. Students were cognizant of the areas where they felt lacking in expertise and ascribed responsibility in these areas to either faculty or administration.
4. Younger students were more inclined to devote more time to campus governance than older students.
5. Male students were more inclined to think that students need to be knowledgeable in institutional matters for them to become effective participants in campus governance.
6. Female students were more inclined to devote additional time to campus activities than male students.
7. Unmarried students were more disposed to active involvement and acceptance of responsibility in campus governance than married students.
8. Unmarried students tended to feel that knowledge of

institutional matters was necessary for effective student participation.

9. Married students were more inclined than the unmarried ones to have confidence in the ability of students to influence campus decision-making.

10. The position of student hometown on the national hierarchy of municipalities was directly related to student perceptions of the need to allocate more time to campus governance, being knowledgeable about campus affairs for effective participation, and confidence in student ability to influence campus decision-making.

11. Student perceptions of personal involvement and freedom to take part in campus governance were not related to their major field of study.

Conclusions

Student involvement in campus governance was considered vital to the educational experience. In the Philippines, in general, and at the University of the Philippines, in particular, there was a need to recognize and appreciate student participation as basic to student humanity, commitment to learning, and national development. To permit students to send more of their insights and understanding to institutional decision-making bodies and processes may not guarantee student gratitude, but not to do so would be to neglect a useful endeavor and an involvement which may one day assure survival.

258. MATRIANO, Estela Castro (Ed. D.). "A Study of the Elements of Inquiry and Their Application to Some Selected Issues in a Course in Philippine Problems." Indiana University, 1968. 305 pp. Source: DAI, XXIX, 6A (December, 1968), 1683-A-1684-A. XUM Order No. 68-17,281.

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Problem

The purposes of this study were to:

1. Identify the elements of inquiry.

2. Develop model teaching units for a course in Philippine Problems based on these elements.

3. Draw implications for social studies teaching in Philippine high schools. Specifically, this study has aimed to develop instructional materials in the form of model units designed for an inquiry-centered teaching with the view that such can be used by the teachers of Philippine Problems in Philippine high schools.

Methods and Procedures

This consists of two major tasks:

1. The identification of the elements of inquiry.

2. A description of the procedures used in developing the model teaching units.

To identify the elements of inquiry, an analysis of a selected sample of literature on the subject was conducted which enabled the writer to construct a model of inquiry used as a guide in developing the teaching units, and to synthesize the writings (ideas or positions) of the authorities included in the sample. The selected sample consists of 16 authorities and their writings. The writers categorized them into a main group and a supporting one. To the former belong Bruner Dewey, Hunt and Metcalf, Massialas and Cox (and Zevin) and Oliver and Shaver. The latter includes Clements, Cousins, Elsmere, Fenton, Hullfish and Smith, and Starr. Literature revealed that the process of inquiry is composed of several phases or steps varying in number which are not fixed and can be modified to suit the situation. However, it was also revealed that it is possible to categorize them into four basic steps:

1. Recognizing and identifying the problem.

2. Formulating the hypotheses.

3. Testing the hypotheses.

4. Drawing conclusions.

These steps served as guidelines in analyzing the literature and in identifying the specific elements of inquiry. For each of them, the elements which indicated and specified the kind of content, methods and techniques, and materials were determined. The findings from the literature are summarized into the following:

a. Table 1-the writer's model of the process of inquiry which shows the specific elements under each of the three major instructional components (content, methods and techniques, and materials).

b. Table 2-an analysis of the writings of those included in the main group using Table 1 as the guide.

c. Brief discussions of the writings of those included in the supporting group as they relate to the writer's model and to that of those who belong to the main group.

The elements of inquiry which were identified from the analysis of literature formed the framework for developing the model teaching units. These units are:

1. The Election Practices in the Philippines.

2. The Filipino Family in Transition.

3. The Dropouts in Philippine Schools.

4. The Population Problems of the Philippines.

5. The Philippines in Southeast Asia.

Conclusions

The investigator found that in spite of certain limitations such as poor quality and limited quantity of materials, it was possible to develop teaching units for an inquiry-centered teaching. Further investigation of the situation could lead to an increased and improved production of similar materials. This study showed that in applying the elements of inquiry on the model units there are certain conditions which are requisite to the development of inquiry-mindedness:

1. A pervasive climate of open questioning and reflective discussion.

2. The viewing of knowledge as tentative rather than absolute.

3. The use of a wide variety of materials and techniques.

The development of inquiry-mindedness resulting from these conditions puts premium on the methods of thoughts rather than on certain predetermined correct answers and utilizes concepts as tools and as ends. Thus, it becomes even more important to consider that the development of inquiry-mindedness depends largely on the attitude and the ability of the teachers to carry on an inquiry-centered teaching. Such may be attained through an in-service education, classroom implementations and follow-up activities geared towards the use of inquiry in the social studies.

259. MAY, Glenn Anthony (Ph. D.). "America in the Philippines: The Shaping of Colonial Policy, 1898-1913." Yale University, 1975. 396 pp. Source: DAI, XXXVI, 6A (December, 1975), 3932-A-3933-A. XUM Order No. 75-27,024.

During the period 1898-1913, American colonial policy in the Philippines had three principal components: "political education," primary education and economic reforms. An aim of all three was to change the Philippines in fundamental ways.

"Political education" was the phrase of William Howard Taft, first Civil Governor of the Philippines and a key architect of American colonial policy. He and his subordinates were at once aware that Filipinos demanded control over their own affairs and skeptical that they were capable of exercising such control. Taft conceded Filipinos a measure of autonomy in local government; but subjected those governments to close supervision by the American-run insular administration. The object of that "political education" was to give Filipinos a structured experience in self-government. However, by restricting suffrage to Filipinos with wealth, education and previous governmental service, the Americans permitted the existing indigenous elite to retain--and even to reinforce--their dominance over Philippine communities.

The chief makers of American educational policy in the Philippines were lower-level bureaucrats in the colonial administration: the directors of the Bureau of Education. Fred Atkinson, director from 1900 to 1902, wanted to introduce the educational ideas of Booker T. Washington into Philippine public schools. By establishing a system of industrial education, he aimed to train Filipinos for useful work. David Barrows (1903-1909) tried to apply Jeffersonian educational theories to the Philippines--to train Filipinos to be independent, educated yeomen. He emphasized the academic side of school work. Frank White (1909-1913), like Atkinson, favored industrial education, and under his direction, the Bureau of Education began to train pupils for productive labor. None of those directors realized his goals. There was a substantial increase in total enrollment in Philippine primary schools during the period 1900-1913, but the statistics on attendance and promotion were disappointing. Few pupils remained in school beyond the first grade. Few learned to read.

The Philippine Commission (which included the Governor and several Commissioners) and the United States Congress shared responsibility for Philippine economic policy. The Commission wanted to develop export agriculture and other extractive industries by injecting American capital, and to improve transportation and communications. The Commissioners were able to achieve the second objective, but not the first. By law, Congress alone was empowered to set the terms by which individuals and corporations could acquire Philippine public land, and to determine policy regarding franchises, railroad construction and mining development.

For two reasons, Congress discouraged Philippine economic development: because Congressmen from sugar and tobacco states feared competition from Filipino producers of these cash crops; and because many Congressmen, engaged at that time in fighting corporate abuses at home, did not want to provide overly-generous incentives to American investors abroad. American economic policies did not, consequently, have a dynamic impact on the Philippine economy.

Meanwhile, Filipino objections to the American colonial program mounted. The Philippine Assembly, inaugurated in 1907, initially cooperated with American policy-makers. By 1910, however, the Filipino delegates began to object to "political education" (they demanded less supervision), to the Commission's efforts to attract American investment, and to the high cost of the insular administration. As the Taft era came to a close, its policies had proved bankrupt. American policy-makers had not effected substantial change in the Philippines, and they had lost the support of Filipino leaders.

260. MAYNARD, Harold Ward (Ph. D.). "A Comparison of Military Elite Role Perceptions in Indonesia and the Philippines." American University, 1976. 619 pp. Source: DAI, XXXVII, 3A (September, 1976), 1781-A. XUM Order No. 76-19,448.

This research describes and compares how senior officers in Indonesia and the Philippines view the role of the military. Three types of data were analyzed for each country: doctrinal materials, military periodicals and in-depth interviews.

The core of the research involved 78 systematic interviews and numerous additional conversations with senior officers in the two countries. Four basic research questions were used:

1. How would you characterize the role of the military?

2. What do you see as the major threats or obstacles to this role?

3. What are the greatest sources of support for the role of the military?

4. How would you select and train future military leaders?

Any additional 33 questions established the background of the respondent and obtained views on the roles of the president, civil bureaucracy, legislature, political parties, religion and factions within the military. Three questions elicited suggestions on how future research should proceed. Finally, each officer was rated by use of a nine point validity estimate.

Doctrinal materials, periodic literature and in-depth interviews all confirm that the Indonesian and Philippine Armed Forces describe their roles in terms of dichotomous sets. The foremost of these sets is internal security and national development, but numerous sub-roles reflecting a hierarchy of dichotomous sets are also apparent. Through analysis of periodic literature, military role perceptions in both countries were found to be describable in terms of a seven point typology: pledged norm roles, stewardship-leadership roles, civil-military roles, external defense roles, internal security roles, national development roles, and self-maintenance roles. In addition, the Indonesian military appears to have a revolutionary-spiritual role.

One particularly interesting pattern of threat perceptions was uncovered. Senior officers in both countries described radical Muslims and communist remnants as the two foremost threats, followed perhaps by the obstacles posed by corrupt officials and advocates of Western style democracy. Neither military elite sees an active threat from Communist China or Vietnam, but both are concerned with domestic politicians.

The dissertation also includes an extensive bibliographic essay outlining widespread views on the role of the military, especially as it relates to military elites and developing countries. There appear to be seven models com-

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monly employed: professional, modernizing, interventional repressive, revolutionary, bureaucratic, and socialized. Liabilities of each model are discussed as they relate to Southeast Asian military institutions. Singled out for particular criticism is the notion that military organizations "intervene" in political affairs.

Since systematic in-depth interviewing of military elites is extremely rare, the dissertation devotes considerable attention to describing techniques employed in this type of research.

The research concludes with a twenty point propositional inventory concerning military elite role perceptions. Hopefully these hypotheses will be tested in future research.

261. MEDALLADA, Jacinto Arevalo (Ed. D.). "Socio-Economic Development Practices Through the Public Elementary and Secondary Schools in Taiwan, Japan, and Mexico and Their Applicability for the Bicol Region, Philippines." University of Nebraska, 1968. 290 pp. Source: DAI, XXIX, 12A (June, 1969), 4238-A-4239-A. XUM Order No. 69-9632.

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to identify some socio-economic development practices in the public elementary and secondary schools in Taiwan, Japan, and Mexico, which would seem applicable for the Bicol Region, Philippines, after giving consideration to the basic differences between the Philippines and the aforementioned countries. The secondary purposes of this study were:

1. To assess and evaluate the socio-economic conditions of the Bicol Region.

2. To assess and evaluate the public elementary and sec-

ondary schools in the Bicol Region.

3. To develop some fundamental proposals and recommendations.

Summary

An evaluative instrument in the form of an opinionnaire was formulated to secure data regarding the applicability of thirty-four selected socio-economic development practices; twelve from Taiwan, Japan with fifteen, and seven from Mexico. Fourteen well-qualified respondents representing the Bicol Region, Philippines, participated in this study. In order to determine the relative importance of the thirty-four socio-economic development practices, countable units were assigned to each of the four degrees of applicability. The ranks of the thirty-four practices were found by determining the total points for each one of them, which corresponds to the sum of the number of respondents under each degree of applicability, multiplied with the assigned countable unit.

An analysis of the practices considered "highly applicable," or eighteeen of them, revealed that:

1. They refer to subjects in the elementary and secondary schools.

2. Some practices have general concern for a number of subjects in both schools, and with emphasis on socio-economic values.

3. They are practices that can be adapted and implemented in the Bicol Region without affecting the existing programs.

The next twelve practices which were considered "applicable" showed that:

1. Majority of them could only be implemented through the appropriation of funds.

2. Modification of existing policies and notions of the Philippine public schools is needed in order to give consideration to the new practices.

3. One practice (large industries and employers are to provide schools for the children of their employees) requires an Act of Congress in order to be implemented.

The last four practices, or those identified as "useful but not applicable," necessitate legislation and a corresponding appropriation; hence, the unfavorable decision of the respondents.

Conclusions

1. In order to attain economic and social development in the Bicol Region, Philippines, education has to be effectively planned and directed in the light of current problems, needs, and resources of the communities, provinces, and region.

2. Education can contribute immensely in fostering change and development through the curriculum, the students, the teachers, and the school, as a unifying force that can help bring together local groups and organizations in the community.

3. Many socio-economic development practices in other countries like Taiwan, Japan, and Mexico are applicable in the Bicol Region. Some modifications may be made in order to adapt them to the schools and communities of the region.

4. Improvements in the school system do not always need the accompaniment of additional funds; they sometimes need only modification of existing practices, channeling of efforts and resources, and above all an understanding and desire by teachers, school administrators, government officials, and lay people for change and development.

5. Realization of socio-economic development is a long-term process whose results and effects cannot be measured and observed immediately; it needs patience and understanding, coupled with a regular evaluation as the program progresses.

262. MENDOZA, Angelita Rodriguez (Ph. D.). "Clothing Values

Angelita Rodriguez Mendoza

and Their Relation to General Values: A Cross-Cultural Study." Pennsylvania State University, 1965. 342 pp. Source: DAI, XXVI, 11 (May, 1966), 6688-6689. XUM Order No. 66-4831.

This exploratory research study aimed to investigate cross culturally:

1. The relative importance of selected values in the clothing behavior patterns of women.
2. The relation between selected clothing values and specified general values in an interdisciplinary approach.

The study of values was approached from the disciplines of psychology and anthropology.

From the psychological approach, this study investigated the relative importance of the expanded Allport, et al., values, specifically the Aesthetic, Economic, Social, Theoretical, Religious and Political, to which were added the Sensuous and the Exploratory aspects in both the general and clothing value scales. From the anthropological approach, this study investigated the within-culture regularities and irregularities as well as the between-culture differences and similarities in both the general and clothing value scales. Specifically, the F. Kluckhohn system of values was considered which consisted of the following orientations: Relational (Lineal, Individualism, and Collateral), Time (Past, Present, and Future), Man-Nature (Subjugation, Over, and With), and Activity (Doing, Being, and Being-in-Becoming).

The sample consisted of two groups of women undergraduate students enrolled at four colleges in two state universities, the University of the Philippines and The Pennsylvania State University. Data were obtained from 320 subjects (160 from each group) through the questionnaire method. Beside obtaining possible relations between the clothing and general values for each of the two cultures, patterns of relations obtained were further analyzed to determine between-culture similarities and differences.

Findings obtained from the study fully confirmed three of the four hypotheses drawn. These were:

1. Within a given culture, there will be variations in the types of rank-order patterns of the general and clothing value orientations.

2. Comparison of the two cultures under consideration will reveal similarities and differences in types of rank-order patterns of general and clothing value orientations.

3. Comparison of the two cultures will reveal similarities and differences in the types of relationship that exist between clothing values and general values.

The hypothesis that in the two cultures under consideration, clothing values will be related to general values and value orientations was only partially confirmed. It was confirmed in regard to the expanded Allport, *et al*., values and their parallel clothing values, but *not for* the Kluckhohn values and their parallel clothing values.

Specifically, the Filipino group ranked the eight clothing values in this order from the most important to the least: Sensuous, Economic, Aesthetic, Theoretical, Exploratory, Religious, Political, and Social. The same eight values were ranked by the American group in this order: Aesthetic, Sensuous, Exploratory, Economic, Political, Theoretical, Social, and Religious. Except for the Social clothing value, where no significant difference between the Filipino and American mean scores was obtained, all other differences between the mean scores of the two cultures were found to be significant.

While both cultures indicated marked preference for the Lineal, Present, Over-Nature, and Being-in-Becoming over the other alternatives in the four clothing value orientations, differences were also found between the two cultures. The Filipino group was more Future, With-Nature and Being-in-Becoming oriented than the American group in its clothing value orientation. The American group, on the other hand, was more Past, Over-Nature, and Doing oriented in its clothing value orientation.

Clothing values were found to be significantly related in the positive direction to their parallel general values, to a high extent in the Allport, *et al.*, values, and to a few in the Kluckhohn values. In both sets of values, negative relations existed between clothing values and non-parallel general values.

This study indicates that further investigation should be pursued in the area of values and in the area of clothing behavior.

263. MERCADO, Aurea Adrias (Ph. D.). "American College Test Assessment of Educational Hierarchies and Scholastic Survival at the University of the Philippines." University of Maryland, 1968. 142 pp. Source: DAI, XXIX, 10A (April, 1969), 3422-A. XUM Order No. 69-7202.

The purpose of this study was to ascertain if the American College Test (ACT) which is widely used for student assessment in American colleges and universities can be used as a screening instrument at the University of the Philippines.

The design utilized correlational and discriminatory techniques for data involving academic factors, and computed chi-square statistical tests for data involving non-academic factors.

Intercept values and regression coefficients for separate regression equations involving three types of predictor variable combinations of the ACT standard scores and the senior high school grades were computed for males, for females, and for males and females which would most efficiently predict first semester freshman subject grades and first semester grade point average. The *F* ratios for all groups were significant ($P<.01$).

The freshman grade point average was estimated from a combination of ACT composite score and the high school grade average. The addition of the high school grade average to the ACT composite score increased multiple $\underline{R}$ from .47 to .58 for males, from .59 to .62 for females, and from .50 to .57 for the combined group. The combined addition of high school subject grades and ACT scores increased the value of multiple $\underline{R}$ from .47 to .61 for males, from .54 to .65 for females, and from .45 to .59 for males and females.

Canonical correlations for males, for females, and for males and females (e.g., from .40 to .44 between high school grades and freshman grades; from .59 to .64 between ACT scores and freshman grades; and from .64 to .74 between ACT scores/high school grades and freshman grades) were all significant ($P<.0001$).

Discriminant analyses of ACT scores and high school subject grades indicated significant differences among female, and among male and female contrasting sets of two groups: highly successful/successful and unsuccessful, highly successful and unsuccessful, highly successful and successful, successful and unsuccessful ($P<.0001$). The $\underline{F}$ tests indicated significant differences among highly successful/successful and unsuccessful, highly successful and unsuccessful, and successful and unsuccessful male groups ($P<.0001$); and between highly successful and successful male groups ($P<.05$).

Chi-square statistical analyses of the items of the ACT Profile Section indicated significant differences among highly successful, successful, and unsuccessful male, female, and male and female groups in "number of dependents in the family," "level of education expected," "high school non-academic achievement in science, in literature, and in leadership," "potential college co-curricular activity in acting and in government," "college perception influenced by the advice of high school teachers," "college perception of intellectual atmosphere," and "college perception of high scholastic standards" ($P<.05$); and "college perception influenced by the advice of parents," "college perception of low cost," and "college perception of national reputation" ($P<.01$).

The study demonstrated evidence of a gain in selection accuracy ranging from 6 per cent to 20 per cent with the use of the ACT, and a percentage increase in the level of criterion achievement ranging from 3 per cent to 15 per cent between students who would have been admitted with the use of the ACT and students admitted without the use of the ACT. The results of the study indicated that the ACT scores are valid predictors of academic success at the University of the Philippines and that the ACT Profile Section provides useful demographic information which similarly differentiates highly successful, sucessful, and unsuccessful freshmen.

264. MERCADO, Cesar M. (Ph. D.). "Communication Strategies in Launching the 'Green Revolution' in the Philippines: A Socio-Psychological Study." University of Wisconsin, 1971. 208 pp. Source: DAI, XXXII, 10A (April, 1972), 5818-A. XUM Order No. 72-2650.

This study is an exploratory attempt to find out if there was a significant difference between:

1. Communication strategies (persuasion and conpulsion).
2. Levels of exposure to Extension Officer (low, moderate, and high).
3. Sources and receivers of information in their relationship, to:
    a. Information seeking from personal, group and mass media sources.
    b. Information giving to personal receivers.
    c. Type of information sought.
    d. Type of information given.
    e. Number of cultural practices followed.
    f. Adoption of IR-8 and other IR rice varieties.

g. Attitude toward IR-8.

h. A time factor.

Following the Type III design analysis of variance of Linquist, and using the three-way factorial design, we found no significant difference between the two strategies in their relationship with the above seven dependent variables before and after planting IR-8 rice variety.

However, a significant relationship was found between levels of exposure to Extension Officer and the above variables except the adoption of IR-8 rice variety.

Likewise, a significant relationship was found between availability of sources and information seeking from personal, group, and mass media sources before and after planting IR-8 except information seeking from mass media sources after planting the new rice variety. A significant relationship was also found between availability of receivers before and after planting IR-8.

The yield of IR-8 tends to be directly related to the adoption of IR-8 rice variety and the attitude of the respondents toward it.

Theoretically, the Reinforcement Theory tends to be more powerful than the Theory of Cognitive Dissonance in predicting the reactions of the respondents toward the two communication strategies--persuasion and compulsion--employed in launching the "Green Revolution" in the Philippines.

265. MIAO, Evelyn Chih-hua (Ph. D.). "The Structure and Performance of the Proprietary Institutions of Higher Education in the Philippines." University of Wisconsin, 1971. 255 pp. Source: DAI, XXXII, 7A (January, 1972), 3510-A. XUM Order No. 71-29,001.

The study evaluates the performance of the proprietary institutions of higher learning in the Philippines with respect to:

1. Their profitability relative to other industries in the economy.

2. The efficiency of investment in human capital, as measured by private and social rates of return.

3. The distributive impacts, as compared with that of the public and private religious sectors within the system of higher education.

After-tax return on equity, which we have determined as the appropriate measure of interindustry profitability, was estimated at 17.3 per cent in proprietary education compared with 14.9 per cent in large manufacturing firms. We found that applying corporate tax schedules to proprietary schools rather than the favored tax treatment they currently enjoy, ceteris paribus, eliminates the return on equity differerential between these schools and manufacturing. Under prevailing tax policies, proprietary education is a profitable area for capital investment compared with alternatives outside of education.

Rates of return on human capital, in contrast to measures of education industry profits, permit us to investigate the rationality and the efficiency of the behavior of buyers of proprietary education. We find that although private and social rates of return are lowest in proprietary education at 15.5 per cent and 13.5 per cent, respectively, and highest in the public sector, at 27.3 and 23.6 per cent, proprietary schooling is still profitable to students when compared with other assets available to Filipino households, yielding a maximum of 10 to 12 per cent, although well under the pre-tax return on equity in manufacturing of 21 per cent.

Although education in other types of colleges and in the outside economy is socially more efficient than proprietary education, the relatively high profits to sellers and the relatively high rates of return to buyers of these educations give no reason to expect a reallocation of resources to take place.

We found that, on average, proprietary school students come from lower income groups than do students attending religious or public colleges. Proprietary education, therefore, results in not only wider participation in higher education but also facilitates access to college for lower income students.

The prevailing public policies towards higher education create unequal subsidies among college students. The largest government subsidies are conferred upon students attending public schools, who come from relatively high income families and who also receive the largest earnings benefits, afterwards, in the labor market. This program of subsidy can be viewed as consistent with efficiency in that private rates of return are highest where social rates of return are also greatest.

The combination of high profits in proprietary education and strong private incentives to purchase proprietary education indicates that the private market behavior of sellers and buyers is not in harmony with social efficiency goals. Higher quality education and manufacturing are both more efficient areas for capital investment from a social standpoint. Nevertheless, the relatively high profits available in the proprietary education industry coupled with rational private investment behavior of students, would not induce a transfer of resources out of proprietary education as would be warranted to increase allocative efficiency in the economy. The efficiency gains of policy changes must be weighted against the potentially undesirable distributive consequences of such proposals.

266. MINDAJAO, Narciso Muldez (Ph. D.). "Smallholder Forestry and Rural Development: A Case Study of the Picop Project in Bislig, Surigao Del Sur, Philippines." University of Minnesota, 1979. 181 pp. Source: DAI, XL, 2A (August, 1979), 979-A. XUM Order No. 7918372.

A field study was conducted in Bislig, Surigao del Sur, Philippines (PICOP), and the Development Bank of the Pnilippines (DBP). Data were obtained by interviewing two hundred respondents broken down into 100 DBP-financed and 100 non-DBP-financed tree farmers. Fifty non-participants were also interviewed to determine some explanations for their non-participation. Other relevant data were obtained by reviewing existing documentation about the PICOP project. Following are the findings.

The PICOP project started in 1967 when the company campaigned among the Bislig and vicinities residents to go into tree farming. PICOP perceived private tree farms as another source of raw materials for its 430-ton-per-day integrated newsprint and kraftboard mill which came on stream in 1971. Twenty-two municipal and barrio officials were chosen as demonstration tree farmers.

In 1968 only one tree farm was established. As of October, 1977, there was a total of 3,129 tree farmers with a total farm area of 14,566.7 hectares. In terms of labor requirements, the PICOP project would need a total of 1,602,337 man days during one rotation of eight years.

One impact of the project on PICOP is the goodwill it has built up among the smallholders. With regard to PICOP's raw material supply, a total of 55,176.68 cubic meters of pulpwood was bought by PICOP from tree farmers for the period 1974-1977.

Among the non-DBP farmers, the main factors influencing initial participation are annual family income, education, and degree of risk aversion. For the DBP farmers, the crucial variable is land use at the time of learning about the project.

Lack of ability, rather than lack of interest, was the main reason cited for non-participation.

Only two farmers have dropped out from the PICOP project. These were forced to sell their forest crops to meet emergency needs. Both farmers, however, have planned on reestablishing their tree farms.

The DBP and non-DBP farmers agree on two principal reasons for continued participation in the project: high rate of return and assured market for tree farm harvest.

The DBP farmers had an average tree farm of 11.94 hectares with an average financial rate of return of 59 percent. The non-DBP farmers had an average of 3.78 hectares with an average financial rate of return of 53 percent.

The non-DBP farmers had a mean annual income of ₱6,339.00. Starting year 9, they would earn a mean annual revenue of ₱6,139.00 from their tree farms. The DBP farmers had a mean annual income of ₱10,591.00. Starting year 8, they would earn a mean annual revenue of ₱8,892.00 from their tree farms.

Among the DBP farmers who have thinned or harvested their tree farms, the major allocation (55%) of their additional income was for investment in passenger jeep and other business ventures. The non-DBP farmers allocated 81 percent of their additional income from thinning for food and clothing.

The economic rate of return associated with the PICOP project was estimated to be 23 percent. It was shown that if the rate of tree planting were changed to one hectare per year, instead of two hectares per year, the economic rate of return would be 24 percent. Also, if cost increased by 4 percent and benefits by 2 percent per year, the economic rate of return would be 26 percent.

267. MIRAFLOR, Clarita Go (Ph. D.). "The Philippine Nurse: Implications for Orientation and In-Service Education For Foreign Nurses in the United States." Loyola University of Chicago, 1976. 202 pp. Source: DAI, XXXVI, 11B (May, 1976), 5515-B. XUM Order No. 76-11,719.

Out of ninety-one countries represented by foreign nurses in the United States, the largest group (47.7%) are nurses from the Philippines. This study was made to determine their socio-economic and educational background, reasons for immigration, cultural and professional problems of adjustment during their first few months of employment and how they compared with United States nurses in six major categories.

Philippine nurses who immigrate to the United States are mostly female, 35 years old or younger and held responsible jobs. A large number of the respondents belong to middle class families, with most parents practicing a profession or engaged in white collar jobs.

A majority of the respondents received their college education in Manila (Southern Luzon) where most of the schools and colleges of nursing are located. It was found that 59% of the respondents are graduates of diploma programs and 41% of baccalaureate programs.

The motivating factors which influenced the Philippine nurses to immigrate to the United States were identified. Most of the respondents indicated "to further education," as their foremost reason for immigration. This was followed by "to increase technical skills," and in third rank was "financial reasons."

Cultural problems of adjustment during their first few months in the United States related to communication, food, time change, climate and areas of American living which clash with Philippine traditions. The majority of the respondents ranked communication, knowledge of hospital policies and pathophysiology as the first three areas of difficulty in relation to their professional adjustments.

Of the respondents 86.5% are licensed and 13.5% are not licensed. 53.8% obtained their licenses by reciprocity, 36.1% by writing the board exam and 10.1% through the process of endorsement. For those who took the board exams, 39.9% passed the exam in one attempt, 39.9% in two attempts and 20.2% attempted the exam at least three times. The failures could be attributed to the unfamiliarity of the testing tool and reading comprehension.

Another problem in relation to licensure is in the area of refresher courses. There are very few schools of nursing willing to accommodate nurses for specific courses. Those who fail the medical and/or surgical nursing courses may have to repeat the entire nursing course since the two specialties are integrated throughout the curriculum.

A comparison between the United States and Philippine nurses in six categories showed that the United States nurses are generally rated slightly higher in all areas; however, in the categories of job performance, interpersonal relationships and physical fitness, more Philippine nurses are rated excellent.

Based on the findings of this study a number of recommendations were made in relation to communication, "screening" practices, orientation (internship program), inservice education, licensure and international nursing standards.

268. MIRANDA, Dulce Corazon S. (Ph. D.). "Selected Predictors of Freshman Academic Performance at the University of the Philippines College of Agriculture." Cornell University, 1971. 133 pp. Source: DAI, XXXII, 9A (March, 1972), 4959-A. XUM Order No. 72-8974.

The purpose of the study was to determine the relative contribution of selected variables in the overall prediction of first semester academic performance in the College of Agriculture of the University of the Philippines. The two freshman classes of 1967 and 1968 were used as subjects. The predictive variables studied were high school average and two entrance test batteries: the College Freshman Examination (CFE) for the 1967 freshmen, and the College Admissions Test (CAT) for the 1968 freshmen.

The CFE is made up of an Achievement Test, the SRA-Verbal, Purdue Non-Language Personnel Test, and IPAT Culture-Fair Intelligence Test. Of the four, only Achievement is a local test. Total Aptitude is the sum of SRA-Total, Purdue and IPAT. Overall Total is equal to Total Aptitude plus Achievement.

The CAT, which was developed entirely in the Philippines, consists of the following subtests: Reading Comprehension Test-Vocabulary, Comprehension, Total; English Proficiency

Test-Spelling, Mechanics, Grammar and Usage, Organization, Total; and Mathematics Achievement Test. CAT-TOTAL is the sum of all the subscores.

The criterion of academic performance was measured in terms of grade-point average. This was computed on the basis of 17 credit units of course work, or five academic subjects (the same for all students), taken during the first semester of the freshman year. The grading system of the University is from "1" to "5," with intervening decimal grades, and with a higher value placed on the lower numerical figure.

A random sample, drawn up in each class, served as a validation group for formulating prediction equations combining the variables that would optimally improve the level of prediction accuracy. The remaining subjects are withheld from the first part of the study for purposes of cross-validation. Males and females were treated separately in the analysis of the data.

Several computer programs were used for the statistical computations. The bulk of the analysis, however, was carried out by a stepwise multiple regression program for formulating the prediction equations.

Findings

1. Statistically significant correlations were obtained for both classes between first semester GPA and all of the predictors. Sex differences in the size of the coefficients were not found to be significant, except for high school average, which had the lowest correlation with the criterion for the 1967 males.

   For the 1967 freshmen, the best single predictor of the first semester GPA for males was overall total of the CFE; and for females, the Achievement score of the same examination.

   For the 1968 freshmen, CAT-TOTAL was the best single predictor for both males and females.

2. A combination of four or five variables was found to be sufficient for the optimal prediction of freshman

GPA. For the 1967 males, the final regression equation, which consisted of Achievement, SRA-Quantitative, IPAT and high school average, yielded a multiple R of .75. For females, a two-variable equation consisting of Achievement and high school average, yielded a multiple R of .76.

For the 1968 males, a multiple R of .77 was obtained from a combination of five variables: high school average, Math, EPT-Grammar, EPT-Organization and EPT-Mechanics. The equation for females consisted of high school average, Math and EPT-Grammar, resulting in a multiple R of .76.

3. Some loss in prediction accuracy was observed for both classes in the cross-validation study to test the validity of the equations. Zero-order correlations between predicted and observed GPA's decreased for males as well as for females. The correlations obtained were, nevertheless, high enough to be of significant value for prediction purposes.

4. While high school average did not come out as the best single predictor of freshman GPA, its correlation with the criterion ranged from .55 to .65. Also, high school average was included in the final regression equations for both sexes in both classes.

269. MOLONY, Carol Hodson (Ph. D.). "Multilingualism and Social Behavior in the Southern Philippines." Stanford University, 1969. 271 pp. Source: DAI, XXX, 8B (February, 1970), 3465-B. XUM Order No. 70-1577.

Given that languages and societies continually change, and that there is a relationship between speech behavior and the setting in which it occurs, are people aware that they change their speech habits, that they adjust their speech to fit the setting? I have examined language usage as social behavior, studied from the viewpoint of the members of a multilingual society, and have shown that much of the language behavior is conscious. Data are presented from a field study undertaken in a community on a small island near Zamboanga City, where 347 Moslems live. The major occupations found in this community are cocunut farming and fishing, and secondarily, smuggling and transporting passengers and cargo by boat. Yakan, Samal and TawSug are all first languages in the community. Samal has three dialects represented locally. Most adults speak these three languages. Languages not known as mother tongues but only as second languages are Zamboangueño, Tagalog, Cebuano Bisayan, and English. Arabic is commonly read. Linguistic data are presented which are relevant to a discussion of choices people make about how to behave verbally. First, relative diversity is considered of the several relevant languages, as one factor in making choices regarding language learning. Second, an analysis is made of past loan influence on the two main languages, as one implication of the influence of other cultures. Certain social data are presented as a background for examining speech events. Along with general census data, descriptions of the major economic activities are presented, as well as the educational and political situations. Mobility is considered in sections on contacts and travel outside the community and changing alliances within the community. The local concept of prestige is examined. Next is a presentation of the usage of the various codes in the community. The various languages and dialects, as used with varying degrees of proficiency, can be used to sort out speakers as well as variation by settings and topics. Situations when people switch languages are the focus of this section. Then, an analysis is made of the language behavior found in the community. The verbal behavior is accounted for by social behavior, from the viewpoint of the members of the community, according to statements they make about specific verbal behavior, by their attitudes regarding the various languages and their speakers, and by an analysis of language switching according to appropriate social cues. Further evidence given is a discussion of choices people make about language learning and vocabulary borrowing.

There are degrees of consciousness regarding speech behavior, and there are discrepancies between the perception of speech behavior and the actual behavior. What I have presented is an analysis of which codes are considered appropriate in which situations, in comparison with the actual usage in various situations. There is individual variation in how these situations are recognized.

Finally, I have shown that both the linguistic repertoire and the social settings are changing in this community. In comparison with nearby, monolingual communities in both Yakan and Samal, the evidence in this community is that these two languages borrow extensively from one another, especially at the lexical level. An additional process is leading to the disappearance of Yakan as a first language: Yakan-Samal intermarriages occur frequently, and the children of these marriages are being taught Samal as their first language. Similarly, ethnic distinctions between these two groups are disappearing as the economic situation changes which decreased land holdings and fishing opportunities and increased smuggling and educational opportunities. The linguistic choices which the people make in this community are continual; the people must continually assess the situations in which they find themselves and make decisions regarding their speech behavior which are appropriate to the situation, and they must adjust to the changing social and linguistic situations in the community.

270. MORADA, Hector B. (Ph. D.). "Migration and Fertility in the Philippines: A Study of Interrelations." Utah State University, 1980. 193 pp. Source: DAI, XLII, 5A (November, 1981), 2310-A. XUM Order No. 8121384.

The objective of this study is to ascertain which of the two theoretical orientations that guided research in the interrelations between migration and fertility (the "social mobility model" and the "assimilation model") is supported more strongly by the Philippine data. According to the "assimilation model," migrant fertility would fall between the levels of the sending and the receiving nonmigrant population. According to the "social mobility model," migrant fertility would fall below the levels of the sending and receiving nonmigrant population predicting a "migration effect" through the lower fertility levels among the migrants compared to the nonmigrants given that the sending and receiving areas are structurally similar as in the cases of urban-urban and rural-rural migration.

Hector B. Morada

This study was based on a sample of currently married husband-present women aged 15-49 years selected from a one-percent sample of households from the 1975 population census of the Philippines. The migration status of the couple was based on the migration experience of the wife during the 1970-1975 period, classifying them into urban and rural nonmigrants, rural-urban (R-U) migrants, urban-rural (U-R) migrants, urban-urban (U-U) migrants, and rural-rural (R-R) migrants. Two measures of fertility, number of children ever born (CEB) and number of children aged five years or younger (current fertility), were utilized to compare the various migrant-nonmigrant groups and ascertain the data conformity to either the "assimilation model" or the "social model." The sample size used in the analyses was 8,553.

Analyses of covariance on CEB and current fertility were performed using migration status as the main factor of interset with husband's education and occupation and wife's education and work experience as other factors; and with child mortality, variables relating to age of the wife and the number of children born prior to 1970 (initial parity) as covariates.

In this study, CEB appeared to discriminate among the various migrant-nonmigrant groups of women with respect to their fertility experience. Considering other variables in the analyses, these groups were ranked from smallest to largest number of CEB as follows: U-U, R-U, U-R migrants, urban nonmigrants, R-R migrants, and rural nonmigrants. The predicted effects of women's age, education, work experience, and child mortality on CEB were supported by the data set. It was found that current fertility is a quadratic function of age with current fertility levels increasing at young ages, reaching a maximum at about age 30 and decreasing beyond age 30.

Covariance analyses of current fertility showed that migration status, as a factor, was not statistically significant. Examination of the main effects of migration status demonstrated the more probable ranking of the groups of women with respect to current fertility. Analyses of the four types of migration indicated that the set of Philippine data adheres more closely to the "social nobility model" rather than to the "assimilation model," being in agreement with prediction of the former in R-U, U-R and U-U types of migration. R-R migration conformed more closely with the "assimilation model."

From the results of the analyses, an alternative framework relating migration and fertility is advanced considering the effect of urbanization or urban exposure. In this framework, fertility is seen to be related to urban exposure and geographical movement.

271. MORAIS, Robert Jay (Ph. D.). "Dimensions of Interpersonal Relationships in a Lowland Philippine Town." University of Pittsburgh, 1980. 271 pp. Source: DAI, XLI, 6A (December, 1980), 2673-A. XUM Order No. 8028045.

This study described and analyzed the content, structure, function, process and variation of various dyadic and polyadic personal relationships in a lowland Philippine town. The relationships discussed included real kinship, ritual kinship, friendship, market exchange partnerships, patron/client bonds and special debts of gratitude. A paradigm stressing the mutual definition of these relationships was the framework for analysis while the function of sentiment, the saliency of certain relationships for particular tasks and the role of these personal bonds in allocating scarce resources were other foci. Interpersonal values, child-rearing patterns and culture history were also integrated in the analysis.

The methods utilized included: participant observation, case studies, intensive interviews with key informants and an extensive questionnaire dealing with the demographic background of 119 men and women, attitudes concerning mutual aid, self-concept, child-rearing values and definitions and conceptions of the interpersonal relationships under examination.

Following a selective ethnography of the town studied, the historical foundations and contemporary attributes of each of the six relationships were described and viewed as an integrated system. Within this system, close kinship and close friendship emerged as core relationships serving as structural anchors and affective models for the other components of the system. The content of distant kinship, social friendship, ritual kinship, market exchange partnerships, patron/client bonds and bonds based on debts of gratitude varied according to the extent to which these relationships were merged with one another and with close kinship and close friendship. Sentiment and reciprocity were shown to be important initiators and validators of all of the relationships discussed.

This study has significance for Philippine anthropology in that it provides a systematic and integrative account of interpersonal relationships in the lowland Christian Philippines. For anthropology in general, it suggests a model for the consideration of a wide range of personal relationships within a single system. It also documents the use of the various components of this system in alternative contexts.

272. MORREN, Ronald Carl (Ed. D.). "A Descriptive Study of the Procedures Involved in Developing Literacy Materials for the Sama Bangingi: A Preliterate Society in the Republic of the Philippines." New Mexico State University, 1977. 459 pp. Source: DAI, XXXVIII, 4A (October, 1977), 1858-A-1859-A. XUM Order No. 77-20,467.

This study describes the steps taken by the researcher in preparing literacy materials for a preliterate society in Southern Mindanao, Republic of the Philippines. While the main objective was to produce literacy materials through which reading could be taught, it was first necessary to gain sufficient sociological, cultural, anthropological, as well as linguistic and language background concerning the people for whom the literacy material was intended. Therefore, the following disciplines were investigated relative to the cultural community under consideration. (While there is somewhat of an order involved in the numerical listing below, it should be understood that there is much overlapping and one area cannot be exhaustively studied without simultaneously examining other categories of information.)

1. Sociological, cultural, and anthropological studies were necessary for an understanding of the values, mores, and customs of the community.

2. A basic speaking knowledge plus linguistic analysis of the language were important for purposes of preparing written reading lessons for this heretofore unwritten language. This necessitated a more scientific look at:

    a. The phonology--the study of speech sounds.

    b. The morphology--the study of how these speech sounds combine to make meaningful utterances.

    c. Syntax--the study of sentence construction.

3. Orthographical considerations were important to answer the question, "How shall I write this language?" Thus, an orthography test was developed by the researcher to obtain native-speaker reaction to alphabetical symbols and spelling choices. Incorporating the results of this test in the rules for writing this language is expected to result in wide acceptance of the written form of Sama Bangingi as advocated by the researcher.

4. The actual literacy materials which were prepared include a pre-primer, primer, and accompanying reading materials.

Results of the study are not only a set of learning-to-read materials, but evidence that speakers of Sama Bangingi can learn to read using these materials. Bangingi school teachers were given a seminar on how to use these literary materials to teach other Bangingis to read. Despite the handicap of political strife and fighting between government troops and dissidents in the area, approximately 80 school-age students and 25 adults were taught to read in the fall of 1975 using the materials as herein described. Teachers using the primer testified that students learn to read more easily with these vernacular materials than with other methods they have used.

273. MOSENDE, Leonora Cedro (Ph. D.). "Sociocultural Correlates of the Maternal Teaching Styles of Selected Filipino Women." University of Michigan, 1981. 246 pp. Source: DAI, XLII, 5A (November, 1981), 1945-A. XUM Order No. 8125173.

Differences in maternal teaching styles have been linked to the differencesin the cognitive development and academic achievement of yourn children. Social class and ethnicity have been associated with such differences. However, the contributing environmental and cultural factors which could account for such differences within a group have not been previously studied.

In this study, the nature of the maternal teaching styles of Filipino women are examined in relation to demographic characteristics, social status and cultural configurations. Age of the women and children, child sex and sibling order, location of residence and family structure comprise the demographic variables. Social status includes education, occupation, employment and annual family income. Situational variables include sources of socialization information. Cultural configurations are beliefs, attitudes, perceptions, aspirations and practices regarding child teaching and learning.

Eighty-six rural and urban Filipino mother-child pairs were interviewed and observed in Surigao del Norte, Philippines. The average age of the women and children were 34 and 5 1/2 years old respectively. Interview and maternal teaching observation schedules were used. The women taught their children two semi-structured tasks. Teaching behavior was coded according to the occurrence of positive and nonpositive reinforcements, questions and explanations, directives, modelling and visual cueing. Categorized as affective, cognitive and neutral, each teaching style had three levels; high-positive low-negative, balanced and low-positive high-negative.

Majority of the women displayed a balanced approach across the three teaching styles. However, social class differences were found; high social status mothers used positive teaching styles while those of low social status used more modelling and visual cueing. Differences in teaching styles of rural and urban women and those from nuclear and extended families, were related to differences in social status, in the amount of exposure to formal and nonformal sources of childrearing knowledge, mobility, membership in organizations and some cultural beliefs and practices. Cultural configurations influenced by formal and nonformal educational systems were significantly associated with positive and cognitive-rational maternal teaching styles. The inverse pattern appeared for those women holding more traditionally oriented cultural configurations.

274. MUEGO, Benjamin Navarro (Ph. D.). "The 'New Society' of the Philippines: A Case Study of a Developmental Movement Regime." Southern Illinois University, 1976. 323 pp. Source: DAI, XXXVII, 6A (December, 1976), 3877-A. XUM Order No. 76-28,763.

This study is about the martial law regime in the Philippines (or as President Ferdinand E. Marcos chooses to call it, the "New Society"), the factors which brough it about, the nature of the regime, and the various changes that have since been instituted. These changes encompass a wide variety of areas--govermmental, social, cultural, educational--and have radically altered Philippine politics.

Chapter I (The Nature of Change) is a discussion of various models or paradigms of development, e.g., the development movement regime, transitional or prismatic society, and revolution. Also discussed in this chapter is the nature and scope of martial rule and its genesis in Philippine constitutional and political law. Martial law is not indigenous to the Philippines; it was brought to the Philippines by the United States, first through the Organic Act of 1901 (otherwise known as the Jones Law) and later, through the Tydings-McDuffie Independence Act.

Chapter II (The Matrix of Change) provides the necessary historical background for the study. The discussion focuses on the colonial experience of the Philippines both under Spain and the United States (there is also an abbreviated discussion of the Japanese interregnum), and the possible effects such experience had, and continues to have on the Philippines as an independent nation-state. The administrations of five Presidents under the Second Philippine Republic (Manuel A. Roxas, Elpidio Quirino, Ramon F. Magsaysay, Carlos P. Garcia, and Diosdado P. Macapagal) and of Ferdinand E. Marcos (the sixth President, and creator of the "New Society") are briefly analyzed.

Chapter III (The Process of Change) is an analysis of the decision making process which led to the issuance of Proclamation No. 1081, the martial law proclamation. The nature and dimensions of Marcos's "revolutionary ideology" and the evolution of this ideology are secondary foci of investigation. The factors which led to the issuance of Proclamation No. 1081 may be divided into two categories, the immediate and long-term. The immediate cause was the "state of rebellion" and near-anarchy in the Philippines from January 1970 to September 1972 (supposedly incited by extremist student organizations. The Maoist-faction of the Communist Party of the Philippines, and an anti-Marcos mass Media); while the long-term cause was the supposed desire of Marcos to bring about a "reformed society" rid of "oligarchs" and the "profligate rich" who have "perverted political authority."

Chapter IV (The Aftermath of Change) is a detailed examination of the changes that have been wrought on the governmental and political structure including that of the adoption of a parliamentary system of government and the liquidation of the American-style presidential form which had been in existence since the Commonwealth period. The 1935 and 1973 Constitutions are compared calling particular attention to the basic differences between the two documents, and certain novel ideas and principles which were incorporated into the 1973 Constitution. Two of the most important and powerful agencies in the New Society--the Armed Forces of the Philippines and the Judiciary--are also examined, and the roles both agencies play in the movement regime are emphasized. The Armed Forces of the Philippines is the enforcer of the proclamations and decrees of the New Society and the guarantor of its existence, while the Judiciary particularly the Supreme Court has provided, and continues to provide, legitimacy and legality to these edicts.

Chapter V (Change and Public Policy: Two Select Outputs) addresses itself to two policy areas--foreign affairs and agrarian reform--which the New Society has accorded top priority status. Ferdinand E. Marcos has been quite sensitive to criticisms of his regime, e.g., that it is dictatorial, repressive, and brutal, especially by Americans. Consequently one of Marcos's key concerns has been the projection of a positive image abroad for the New Society. Toward this end, Marcos designated his wife, Imelda Romualdez-Marcos, and his brother-in-law, Governor Kokoy Romualdez, as roving ambassadors, to lay the groundwork for what has since been labelled the "new foreign policy." Some of the major changes in Philippine foreign policy have been the establishment of formal diplomatic relations with most countries of the socialist bloc, sub-Sahara Africa, the Middle East, and Latin America. On the matter of agrarian reform, Marcos has launched a "land to the tiller" policy, a departure from previous land reform programs. It appears that Marcos, like his predecessors, is using land reform to win the support of the peasantry, and in the process defuse potential agrarian unrest. While there have been significant achievements in the New Society's land reform program, numerous obstacles, not the least of which is the limited hectarage of available rice and corn lands, remain.

Chapter VI (Conclusions and Observations) is devoted to a review of the nine preliminary hypotheses around which the study was organized, and some of the author's observations on the prospects of a return to participatory democracy.

275. MUERMAN, John Charles (Ph. D.). "The Philippine Schools under the Americans." George Washington University, 1922. 157 pp. Source: Eells, p. 122; and CDI (1978), V, p. 392.

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276. NAM, Sunwoo (Ph. D.). "A Comparative Study of Freedom of the Press in Korea, Taiwan and the Philippines in the 1960s." University of Wisconsin, 1969. 214 pp. Source: DAI, XXXI, 3A (September, 1970), 1303-A. XUM Order No. 70-3641.

This is a comparative study of freedom of the press in Korea, Taiwan (Nationalist China) and the Philippines in the 1960s. The definition of press freedom as used in this study is the traditional Anglo-American one. The Anglo-American conception of it recognizes four aspects of press freedom:

a. Freedom from prior restraint.

b. Freedom from punishment subsequent to publication.

c. Freedom of access to information.

d. Freedom of circulation.

For the purpose of comparison among the three, the concept of press freedom is operationalized as follows, based on the further subdivision of (a) plus (b), (c) and (d) as they are; press freedom will mean relative absence of:

1. Adverse press law.

2. Clauses in national security laws affecting the press.

3. Extra-watchdogs (e.g., intelligence agency) over the press.

4. Government ownership of some newspapers.

5. Informal control or pressure, economic or otherwise.

6. Taboo subjects in reporting of commenting.

7. Various forms of subsequent punishment ranging from arrest of offending journalists to incidents of personal terror.

8. Interference in access to information.

9. Interference in distribution process.

It was found, through rearrangement of both primary sources, mostly statutes, and secondary materials along these categories, that the Philippines has a free press, quite comparable to the Anglo-American model, and Taiwan a controlled press with Korea in between but leaning toward the Taiwan side.

In a content analysis of one pro-government and one opposition newspaper in each of the three countries, it was found that the Philippine press enjoys real freedom in both editorially criticizing the government, frequently including the president, and in having plenty of unfavorable news items about it, while the Taiwanese press does not, true to the expectations generated by the analysis of the documents according to those categories already mentioned. The Korean press, however, seems to maintain the critic's role quite vigorously, contrary to the expectation. It is postulated that the colonial experience in which the press developed a tradition of opposition against the government might be the crucial factor explaining the difference in the contents of the newspapers of Korea and Taiwan.

To explain the general findings, the following propositions are suggested. First, different modernization models imposed upon the developing countries either by their colonial experience or by their conscious adoption of models, have different consequences for their freedom tradition.

Siebert's two propositions seem to hold, too, i.e.:

1. The extent of the government control of the press depends on the nature of the relationship of the government to those subject to the government.

2. The area of freedom contracts and the enforcement of restraints increases as the stresses on the stability of the government and of the structure of the society increase.

To paraphrase, the political-legal system of a country is more important in predicting the extent of press freedom than, say, the economic development profile. Fluctuations in the stress on government and society are likely to result in fluctuations of the extent of the freedom.

Other seemingly plausible propositions include: geographical proximity to a center of threat, actual or perceived, decreases the area of freedom; the politics of extremism--be that Communism or its antithesis, strong anti-Communism including fascism brand--is not conducive to the spirit of the libertarian principles of the press and other freedoms.

277. NAMOC, Pedro M. (Ph. D.). "The Administrative Role of the Diocesan Secondary School Director in Central and Eastern Visayas Regions in the Philippines." Fordham University, 1976. 266 pp. Source: DAI, XXXVII, 2A (August, 1976), 747-A. XUM Order No. 76-17,909.

This study, which was based upon the Getzels-Guba theory of administration as a social process, determined and compared the perceptions of the directors, principals, and teachers with respect to the real role and ideal role of the diocesan secondary school director in Central and Eastern Visayas regions in the Philippines, and ascertained the relationships between their perceptions and the variables of education, experience, leadership behavior, and belief system.

Specifically, this study sought to obtain empirical data regarding the following questions:

1. What were the distributions of the real role and ideal role of the diocesan secondary school director as expressed by the directors, principals, and teachers?

2. Did significant differences exist among the means of the responses of the directors, principals, and teachers with respect to their perceptions of the real role

and also the ideal role of the diocesan secondary school director?

3. Did significant differences exist between the means of the perceptions of the real role and ideal role of the diocesan secondary school director as expressed by the directors, principals, and teachers?

4. Did significant differences exist among the discrepancy values of the responses of the ideal role and the real role of the diocesan secondary school director as expressed by the directors, principals, and teachers?

5. Did significant relationships exist between the perceptions of the real and also the ideal role of the director as expressed by the combined group of respondents and each of the variables of education, experience, leadership behavior, and belief system?

The subjects of this study consisted of 54 directors, 51 principals, and 244 teachers. The instruments used were the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, the Dogmatism Scale, the Diocesan Secondary School Director's Administrative Role Perceptionnaire, and the Interview Guide; the latter two instruments having been developed by the investigator.

The major findings of this study were:

1. The directors' perceptions of the real role and also the ideal role were considerably different from those which the principals and teachers perceived them to be.

2. There were incongruencies expressed by the respondents with respect to their perceptions of the real and ideal role of the director.

3. The directors had the fewest discrepancies with respect to their perceptions of the ideal and real role.

4. The variable that influenced most the respondents' perceptions regarding all dimensions concerned with both the real and ideal role was belief system; leadership behavior, particularly the consideration scale,

affected the respondents' perceptions of the ideal role of the supervisory dimension, while initiating structure affected the respondents' perceptions of the ideal role of the morale builder dimension.

The major conclusions of this study were:

1. Unless the director applied a transactional mode to the operative framework of his administrative behavior, a high potential for role conflicts among the principals and teachers was likely to exist, thus, creating a debilitating effect upon the achievement of the school's goals.

2. There existed a potential for role conflicts in the idiographic dimension of the Getzels-Guba model; since the director had to deal with a variety of individuals, he was exposed to conflicts, with the result that his primary concern was the resolution of these conflicts.

3. The director had not continually examined the effects of his role to conceive more clearly how he would act in the future in accordance with the role expectations of the groups with which he was interacting.

4. The incongruencies expressed by the respondents in their perceptions of the real and ideal role was symptomatic of administrative failure which led to loss of individual and institutional productivity.

5. The personal and social beliefs of the respondents were most influential in the assessment of the administrative role of the director.

6. The director's idiographic behavior had an impact on the respondents' assessment of what he was expected to do in connection with his supervisory role, while his nomothetic behavior had an impact on the respondents' assessment of what he was expected to do in connection with his supervisory role, while his nomothetic behavior had an impact on the respondents' assessment of what he was expected to do in connection with his role as a morale builder.

S. Josefina G. Nepomuceno

278. NEPOMUCENO, S. Josefina G. (Ph. D.). "A Theory of Development of Filipino Colonized Consciousness." University of Michigan, 1981. 463 pp. Source: DAI, XLII, 5A (November, 1981), 1998-A-1999-A. XUM Order No. 8122779.

This social critical study attempted to discover the roots of Filipino colonized consciousness in the thematic configuration that emerged from the patterns of interaction and contradictions in Philippine society during the Spanish colonial period 1565 to 1899.

Paulo Freire's thought was taken as main theoretical guide. Gadamer's hermeneutical theory of understanding illumined the interpretative process and Sartre's regressive-progressive procedure served as methodological approach.

Domination emerged as the meta-theme founded on the axial colonial definition of the superiority of the colonizers and the inferiority of the colonized natives.

The first two hundred years consolidated Spanish conquest by the imposition of institutions and structures that set the pattern of administrative governance, productive relations and social relations which in interaction with socio-cultural transformation through religious conversion and cultural invasion shaped the dual consciousness of the natives. The resultant loss of the natives' right to define their world was reflected in their view of the world, a diminished valuation of themselves and their capabilities and a narrowed range of their aspirations.

At the latter part of the colonial period economic changes produced clearer class divisions and generated an upper class consciousness of the landed, educated and hispanized elite over the landless and uneducated lower class, their relationship calibrated by symbiotic dependency.

Class position determined responses to hierarchic racism, increasing repression and social control and deprivation. Assimilation and participation signifying parity with the colonizers shaped the concerns of the landed, educated elite. Emancipation and freedom motivated the landless, uneducated lower class. Momentarily united in quest of an independent Philippine republic, the two classes fell apart with the entry of the United States on the scene.

Thus the bifurcation of Philippine society as product and consequence of Spanish colonial domination was reflected in divergent aspirations and concerns which in turn manifested the colonized westernized consciousness of the upper class and the decolonizing indigenous consciousness of the lower class Filipinos.

279. NICHOLAS, Barbara Ann (Ph. D.). "Floyd W. Reeves on Curriculum." Michigan State University, 1971. 200 pp.

Source: DAI, XXXII, 3A (September, 1971), 1262-A.

XUM Order No. 71-23,222.

Floyd W. Reeves, Distinguished Professor Emeritus in Education at Michigan State University, formerly Professor of Administration in Education and Political Science for nearly a quarter of a century at the University of Chicago, has held many important administrative positions such as the following: Chairman of President Franklin D. Roosevelt's Advisory Committee on Education; Director of Personnel and of Social and Economic Research of the Tennessee Valley Authority; Director of the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education; Chairman of the Conference on Post-War Readjustment of Civilian and Military Personnel in which he helped draft the "G.I. Bill of Rights," and Head of the UNESCO Consultative Educational Mission to the Philippines.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the influence and contributions Reeves has made in the curricula of all levels of education, including elementary, secondary, college and adult education.

Materials for this study were gathered from the following sources: reports and documents from governmental and nongovernmental agencies, minutes of committee and commission meetings, proceedings from educational conferences, articles in professional journals and newspapers, unpublished lectures and addresses, taped interviews with Reeves and with associates of his, personal correspondence from Reeves' associates who were not available for personal interviews, and Reeves' personal papers which are now on file in the archives of the Michigan State University library. The sources cited for each of the chapters are organized chronologically according to the dates they were written.

The study is limited by the fact that the bulk of Reeves' work was not in the area of curriculum; it is limited because many of Reeves' ideas were repetitive in the sources used, which decreased the number of materials actually cited; and it is limited by the fact that in conducting a study of a living individual there is a danger of becoming somewhat biased, causing the loss of some objectivity.

The study is divided into seven chapters as follows: Chapter I introduces Floyd W. Reeves as an authority in education, and describes the outline of the study; Chapter II describes Reeves' early educational background as a student and as a public school teacher and administrator; Chapters III, IV, V, and VI describe Reeves' views concerning the curricula of the elementary schools, secondary schools, colleges, and adult education; Chapter VII is divided into two sections: The first section includes a summary and the conclusions, and the second section is an evaluation of Reeves' influence and contribution based on responses received from some of his associates who are still living as well as that of the writer.

The findings of the study include the following general principles applicable to all levels of curriculum:

1. Students perform better when they are given the freedom to explore their own interests.

2. The individual needs of the students have priority over any required list of studies.

3. All students should have a common body of knowledge and understandings, but there is more than one way to achieve this end.

4. Students need both general and vocational education. They should receive a broad education in order to function successfully in a changing society.

5. Every individual should learn to be a good citizen and contribute to a community's political, social, economic and cultural life.

6. Every individual should learn effectively how to use his leisure in an age in which the work-week is being cut shorter.

The following summarizes Reeves' major influence on and contributions to curricula:

1. As Director of the Rural Education Project of the University of Chicago, Reeves had a definite influence on the curriculum of the rural schools of Illinois. He recommended programs which were implemented in which the students were brought out of their rural isolation and made aware of the larger world community.

2. As Head of the UNESCO Mission to the Philippines he developed programs for the elementary and secondary schools that would enable Filipino students to function in their own community and also become aware of the larger world community.

3. As Chairman of President Franklin D. Roosevelt's Advisory Committee on Education, Reeves was able to influence the President into broadening the committee's study from vocational education to all aspects of education. As a result he was able to help bring about federal aid to education.

4. Reeves had a great influence as Director of the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education. He traveled the country giving hundreds of lectures on what he believed should be included in the curriculum of the secondary schools. He advocated both vocational education and general education which would be relevant to students at the present time as well as for the future.

5. Working with the Institute for Administrative Officers

of Higher Education at the University of Chicago, Reeves had a great influence on the curriculum of the junior college. He studied approximately 100 institutions of higher learning and recommended varying the content rather than having a "set" curriculum. His idea was to individualize the instruction to meet the particular needs and interests of students.

6. Reeves' culminating influence and contribution was that of a catalyst in initiating the complete reorganization of the Basic College curriculum at Michigan State University. He recommended a program of general education which would again meet individual needs and interests.

In evaluating Reeves' influence and contributions as seen by many of his associates, it is obvious that he must share with others the credit for many contributions, but one fact is clear--he did influence enough people to make a difference.

280. NOGUERA, Remedios (Ed. D.). "A Proposal for a Student Personnel Program for the Philippine Women's University." Indiana University, 1954. 242 pp. Source: DAI, XIV, 4 (1954), 618-619. XUM Order No. 7908.

An attempt was made in the study to propose a student personnel program for the Philippine Women's University in Manila, Philippines, based on the student personnel point of view; that is, the educational philosophy which considers the development of the student as a whole--physically, socially, morally, spiritually, and intellectually. The proposed program incorporates the cardinal philosophy of education of the institution, which is "education for useful womanhood." In accordance with this concept, the student should be prepared not only for a useful and effective career, but also to become efficient family members and home managers, and civic-spirited citizens of the community and of the world at large.

In the approach to the study, a general review was made of literature related to student personnel work in the United States, where the movement has gained considerably in scope, impetus, and emphasis. The most common needs and problems of students in the Philippine Women's University which should be met by the proposed program were ascertained by:

1. Making a study of the problems of college students in general.

2. Holding personal conferences with key people in charge of student personnel work in some American women's colleges.

3. Utilizing the records of student problems which come to faculty advisers in the institution.

Investigation was also made in person and through correspondence of the personnel programs of a number of American institutions of higher education for the purpose of adopting personnel procedures which may be applicable to the Philippine Women's University.

The cultural background of the Filipino people and their good traits as well as shortcomings were explored as these provide a setting for an adequate understanding of many problems which confront Filipino youths. In outlining the proposed program, factors such as the location of the institution, its main aims and objectives, the size and the nature of the student population, the physical plant, the availability of funds, the resources found within the institution and in the community, and the personnel available as well as their training, were taken into account.

In order to assist students to attain their fullest possible development, the proposed student personnel program should include these essential services:

1. Pre-college counseling and selective admission.

2. Orientation of freshmen as well as transfer students.

3. Counseling services--educational, vocational, and personal.

4. Remedial services.

5. Physical and mental health services.

6. A supervised program of housing and food services.

7. An organized program of student activities.

8. Financial aid and placement.

9. A supervised program of religious activities.

10. Student discipline.

11. A system of cumulative records.

12. Research and evaluation.

Financial limitations constitute a major obstacle to the establishment of needed and effective student personnel services in the institution. For this reason a minimal program for immediate adoption has been proposed, which will utilize as far as possible existing resources within the institution and in the community. As more funds become available, and in the light of needs as revealed by research and evaluation procedures, gradual steps should be taken to make revisions and to provide more and vastly improved personnel services. The efforts of the administration, staff, faculty, students, and alumnae should be coordinated and directed towards the eventual establishment of the services and facilities recommended in the long-range program.

The designation of a Dean of Students or Student Personnel Director, who will have the same rank and exercise the same prerogatives as a faculty dean, will enable the university to secure better coordination and integration of its student services. Line and staff relationships are necessary not only to secure coordination between and among the student personnel services, but to integrate the whole student personnel program with the instructional program of the institution.

281. NOLASCO, Domingo F. (Ph. D.). "A Study of the English Vo-

cabulary of Filipino High School Students and Its Implications for the Teaching of English in Philippine Secondary Schools." University of California, Berkeley, 1963. 151 pp. Source: DAI, XXVI, 10 (April, 1966), 5896-5897. XUM Order No. 64-2109.

This study is a quantitative measurement of the English vocabulary of 800 Filipino students enrolled in five selected general public high schools in the Philippines during the school year, 1960-1961. The unit of measurement is the type-token ratio (TTR) which is a numerical value obtained by dividing the number of different words (types) in a sample of language by the total number of words (tokens) used in the same sample. The materials are written compositions in English submitted by the 800 students on the subject: "The person I would most want to be like five, ten, or more years from now."

The study is exploratory in nature, and the sources of materials are experimental, to obtain some insights into the development of the English vocabulary of Filipino students whose native language is not English but who study under a system of education that uses English as the language of instruction. This study also presents to English teachers and to those preparing to teach the subject the advantages of using objective measures to supplement the subjective methods commonly used in estimating pupil ability in English.

The 800 compositions were first classified into two groups, namely, second and fourth year groups. Then each group was divided into three groups according to the lengths of the compositions, thus: 100-word group, 150-word group, and 200-word group. In these groupings a guideline was used to determine into what word-group a particular composition belonged. Another guideline was also used to determine what constituted a word. A further grouping of the 800 compositions was made based on the following language variables: location of school, sex, age, and socioeconomic status. The over-all TTR of each of the 800 compositions was computed and, on the basis of the grouping used, the mean

TTR for each group was also computed. Besides the mean TTR, the other statistical measures used to analyze the results are the standard deviation and the standard error of the mean.

A type-frequency list was prepared from the 800 compositions to show the types of words most frequently used by both groups of students, and to determine if variations exist in their vocabulary, considering the two-year educational difference between them.

There are several limitations in this study. The data did not come from samples that are representative of the populations from which they were drawn. There was no random sampling in the selection and collection of materials. The compositions are comparatively short and are of different lengths because the time limit given to the students was forty minutes only, and they were not instructed to write a specified number of words.

In view of these limitations, the findings of this study are applicable only to the groups who supplied the data and to the high schools where they were enrolled. The findings show that:

a. There was no appreciable difference between the second and fourth year students insofar as their English vocabulary is concerned.

b. Language variables in relation to the type-token ratio did not indicate any significant differences among the groups.

c. The students exhibited homogeneous characteristics.

d. Their progress to develop proficiency in English was very slow.

The implications of this study for the preparation of secondary teachers of English in the Philippines point where improvements should be made to strengthen teacher education programs. If English remains as the medium of instruction in the schools, and if proficiency in its use is the measure of pupil achievement, then the inclusion of courses intended to foster vocabulary growth should be considered in present plans to revise these programs.

William Frank Nydegger

282. NYDEGGER, William Frank (Ph. D.). "Tarong: A Philippine Barrio." Cornell University, 1960. 427 pp. Source: DAI, XXI, 4 (October, 1960), 726. XUM Order No. Mic 60-2264.

Tarong is an Ilocano-speaking rural *barrio* (community) in the central Ilocos region of northern Luzon, the largest island of the Philippines. The people are Malaysians living in patrilocal family groups of nuclear households with a bilateral kinship structure. Tarong itself is a stable agricultural community, relatively self-sufficient and dependent on wet rice cultivation.

The thesis is a functional ethnographic account of this group with emphasis on belief and value systems, especially as related to socialization and the development of the adult personality. Included are detailed discussions of the economy, the supernatural environment, illness and its treatment. Other sections describe history, general setting, kinship and marriage, pregnancy and childbirth, social and political organization and social control, with a glossary, including kin terms, appended. In all sectors, contacts with the larger Philippine society have been examined and their impact evaluated when possible.

Descriptive material is included relevant to the currently accelerating introduction of new patterns and beliefs, with analyses of Tarongan attitudes and responses to these changes: for example, the introduction of a new cash crop (tobacco) which has tripled income for most families and offered an opportunity to choose between two routes of mobility--the traditional practice of acquiring additional land and the newer one of education.

The information was collected during fourteen months in the field, the writer and his family living in Tarong. This community, composed of slightly over 300 persons, is located about five miles outside a provincial *población* (town) a short distance from the National Highway, the only route of vehicular transportation.

As part of a larger research project, the Study of Socialization in Five Societies sponsored by Harvard, Yale and Cornell Universities and financed by the Ford Foundation, a variety of data gathering techniques were used: at the cultural level a minimum of three and usually more informants representing all housing groups were interviewed, while detailed information was obtained concerning twenty-four children (ranging in age from 3 to 10) and their mothers, representing twenty-four families. Standardized instruments (observations, interviews, doll-play, etc.) also were used by the field teams in all five societies but this material is not included, as it is in process of analyzation and preparation for publication elsewhere.

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283. OASA, Edmund Kazuso (Ph. D.). "The International Rice Research Institute and the Green Revolution: A Case Study on the Politics of Agricultural Research." University of Hawaii, 1981. 525 pp. Source: DAI, XLII, 4A (October, 1981), 1775-A. XUM Order No. 8122485.

Over a decade has passed since the euphoria over the science-based development of new, high-yielding rice varieties by the International Rice Research Institute in Los Banos, Philippines. While the euphoria subsided quickly as numerous scholars wrote critically on the "green revolution," the expansion of science and technology in solving the world food problem has continued unabated and unexamined. Given the extensive body of literature on the political consequences of the new technology, modern science and technology in agriculture become problematic.

Edmund Kazuso Oasa

This study is premised on the larger need to question the role and expanse of modern science in everyday life. It is argued at the outset that this role has caused a crisis in human understanding. In the present case, the predominance and obsession with technological solutions against the background of persisting hunger reflect a crisis in understanding the condition of world hunger and poverty. This examination is about how and why science and technology have come to play such a huge and instrumental role in our efforts to relieve the world food problem in order to account for the development of technological packages that have benefited few.

The discussion is, therefore, political and historical in its focus on the experience of the International Rice Research Institute (IRRI). It extends IRRI's history beyond its legal and formal establishment in 1960 to the late 1800s when modern science became an indispensable factor in socio-economic production. Attention is given to science's ideological role in this process and its growing influence in defining and acting upon problems in the contemporary world. To this end, pertinent become the works of Max Horkheimer, Herbert Marcuse, and Jurgen Habermas and other critical theorists of and inspired by the Frankfurt School.

It is argued that IRRI's establishment and the ensuing euphoria are another episode in science's historical and ideological role in the development of corporate, monopoly capitalism, particularly in the United States. The green revolution, manifested through the IRRI experience, continued a series of projects by the Rockefeller Foundation in bringing science into the fields of health, medicine, and education. Each had as its goal the restoration of social stability for capitalist development and the expansion of American democracy.

Emerging out of this context was a particular research tradition consisting of specific interests that eventually led to the release of problematic technological forms. The study examines this tradition in considerable detail to expose the ideological and, hence, political values and assumptions imbedded in the agricultural research process. These values and assumptions, it is argued, are masked by research's claim to neutrality and objectivity. The study

therefore seeks to unravel this claim and establish a relationship between it and the historical interest in bringing stability to the rural areas of Asia, which IRRI was initially created to serve.

The author concludes that the IRRI experience and the reliance on science and technology point to a major redefinition of the world food problem, which incorporates the organization, participations, and interests of those whom research is supposed to benefit--the cultivators themselves. The study ends on a brief note on the implications of a redefinition for modern science and its role in world food and agriculture.

284. OCAMPO, Patrocinio Sison (Ph. D.). "Inservice Education Practices in Selected Secondary Schools and Their Implications for the Improvement of Teaching Faculties in the Philippines." University of Minnesota, 1956. 378 pp. Source: DAI, XVI, 6 (1956), 1094-1095. XUM Order No. 16,561.

I. PURPOSE

The purpose of this study is to determine the nature and usefulness of certain inservice education practices in selected secondary schools in the area served by the North Central Association. Teachers and administrators in these schools were asked to identify and describe promising practices used by them to improve teaching faculties. Findings have been interpreted in terms of implications for inservice education in the Philippines.

II. PROCEDURE

The survey form of study was employed with checklist type questions organized in a sixteen-page questionnaire. Only information which could be gathered by mail response was secured.

The inservice education techniques included in the survey were selected from those frequently recommended by education specialists or frequently discussed in professional publications on supervision. Major techniques included were faculty professional meetings, classroom visitation, professional workshops, self-study and research.

Member schools of the North Central Association which have developed promising programs of inservice education were identified by state committee members. Administrators of these schools in turn classified faculty members into those which have made the "most" and "least" professional growth in the past three years. Respondents were classified according to position (teacher or administrator), source of support (public or private), size of enrollment (large, medium, or small) and category of professional growth. Representativeness of response was tested and adjudged to be adequate although the total response among teachers was 45.9 per cent and 66.2 per cent from principals.

Detailed findings were obtained by cross classification of responses in terms of the groups enumerated above. Punched card procedures were employed. Suitable statistical tests determined the significance of differences in response among the several groups.

III. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

1. Inservice programs should be cooperatively planned and organized by the principal and teachers in the local school. The recommendation is consequently made that teachers be aroused to a greater awareness of their personal responsibility to grow professionally through active participation in inservice education activities.

2. Good leadership is essential in the development of effective inservice education programs if cooperative working relationships are to emerge. The recommendation is made that teachers be encouraged to take greater responsibility for meeting the educational needs of students in their local schools. This grass roots approach is particularly to be encouraged in the highly centralized Philippine educational system.

3. In developing a program of inservice education a large number and variety of techniques will be found helpful and acceptable to teachers and administrators. Among techniques most widely accepted as valuable by teachers and administrators in this study were: attendance at meetings of professional associations, professional readings, attendance at State Education Association and summer school attendance. This supports the recommendation that varied inservice education activities be employed in secondary schools to meet the individual needs of teachers.

4. Very little use is made of self-study, research projects and the "Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards" (Evaluative Criteria). More extensive use of self-study on problems of the individual school is recommended together with greater emphasis upon educational research in the pre-service and inservice education of Filipino teachers.

5. Since inservice education is needed by all teachers, the recommendation is made that employing officials include provisions in teaching contracts identifying inservice activities as a part of the teacher's responsibilities and including salary increments which motivate participation. Salaries of Filipino teachers must be raised to levels which will attract the most competent young people to teaching.

6. More than nine-tenths of the teacher respondents in this study were teaching in the field of their college major. Since this is not true in the Philippines, the recommendation is made that teacher education institutions enlarge their college offerings and endorse the University of the Philippines' pattern of two integrated major fields instead of one major and one minor.

285. O'DONNELL, James A. (Ph. D.). "Innovative Practices as Perceived by Principals in the Catholic Secondary Schools of Northern Mindanao, the Philippines." Ford-

James A. O'Donnell

ham University, 1973. 256 pp. Source: DAI, XXXIV, 5A (November, 1973), 2232-A-2233-A. XUM Order No. 73-26,725.

Problem

This investigation sought to determine:

1. The past and future status and extent of use of 100 innovative practices in the dimensions of institutional arrangements, educational technology, and curricular content as perceived by Catholic secondary school principals in Northern Mindanao, the Philippines, during the period 1967-73.

2. The factors facilitating or inhibiting innovation.

3. The judgments of principals as to the educational worth of 25 innovative areas.

The investigation also sought to discover what relationships existed between the past and future status of innovative practices and three control variables: school enrollment size, principal's professional preparation and principal's administrative experience.

Procedures

The subjects for this study were 67 principals, 100 percent of whom responded by means of tape recorded interviews to a Structured Interview Innovation Checklist developed and administered by the investigator.

In order to determine the status and extent of use, facilitating factors, inhibiting factors, and value judgments, frequencies and percentages for each dimension, area, practice, factor, and judgment were calculated. To determine whether there were significant differences between the means of the past-future status and extent of use of innovative areas, practices, and three variables, t-tests and two-way analyses of variance were employed. To test for significant relationships between innovative status and three variables, both product-moment and multiple correlation coefficients were computed.

Findings

The major findings of this research were:

1. The average school employed 26.8 innovative practices in the past and would employ 33.1 in the future.
2. A majority of the schools had innovated or would innovate in four areas--space, faculty involvement, audio-visual aids and staffing.
3. A majority of the schools had used or would use 28 innovative practices--11 institutional arrangements, 7 in technology and 10 in curricular content.
4. The chief inhibiting factors were lack of finances, practical knowledge and qualified personnel.
5. The chief facilitating factors were principal's initiative, professional advice and available facilities.
6. The principals passed favorable judgments upon the educational worth of two thirds and negative judgments upon one third of the innovative areas.
7. There were significant differences between the past-future means of 17 innovative areas.
8. There were significant $\underline{F}$ values for the comparisons of innovative status and two variables: enrollment size and professional preparation; but no significance for administrative experience.
9. There were significant and substantial relationships between innovation status and two variables: enrollment size and professional preparation.
10. The multiple correlations between all three variables and past status (.722) and between all three variables and future status (.761) were significant and substantial.

Conclusions

1. The Catholic secondary schools of Northern Mindanao

exhibited a wide range of innovation from 1967 to 1973, but few practices had taken deep root.

2. The Catholic secondary system was growing in both quality and strength.

3. Certain institutional arrangements would see increased future development, especially innovations allied to utilization of staff and time schedule.

4. Technological innovations which were both easily available and relatively inexpensive had a better chance of survival.

5. Low percentages in curricular innovations reflected the disproportionate control exercised by the Bureau of Private Schools.

6. Principals perceived themselves, not pastors or directors, to be the key agents of change but acknowledged dependence upon professional advice and suggestions from faculty-staff.

7. Some hitherto unsuspected inhibiting factors were isolated, e.g., parental disfavor, poor weather, lack of electrical power and Christian-Moslem conflicts.

8. The hypotheses that innovation takes place in large schools (500+ students) and/or where the principal has a high degree of professional preparation (MA degree) were supported.

Recommendations

1. More extensive use should be made of approved innovations.

2. Catholic schools should petition as a block for greater freedom to experiment with curricular innovations.

3. Superiors should consider a policy of phasing out small schools and forming diocesan clusters.

286. OLIVAS, Romeo Arellano (Ph. D.). "A Survey of the Pro-

blems of Students in Public Secondary Schools in the Province of Cagayan, Republic of the Philippines." Northwestern University, 1968. 328 pp. Source: DAI, XXIX, 8A (February, 1969), 2533-A. XUM Order No. 69-1903.

Purposes

The primary purpose of this study was to determine the common problems of students in the public secondary schools in the Province of Cagayan. It also attempted to determine the suitability of the *Mooney Problem Check List, Form H*, as an instrument for research and study of student problems there.

Method

The method of study used was descriptive-survey. Students, counselors, and teachers were surveyed about student problems in six secondary public schools. Questionnaires and the *Mooney Problem Check List, Form H*, were the devices used to collect the data. Interviews were held with principals, counselors, and teachers during visits made by the writer to the schools. Frequency counts of responses to specific problems listed in the questionnaires and underlined in the *Mooney Problem Check List, Form H*, were made by type of school, grade-level, and sex, for each problem-area. The areas in turn, were ranked according to the magnitude of their frequencies. Null hypotheses were tested for relationships of problem-area patterns of the students.

Findings

The common problem-areas of the students were:

1. Finances, Living Conditions, and Employment.
2. Personal-Psychological Relationships.
3. Social-Psychological Relationships.

4. Social and Recreational Activities.
5. Adjustment to School Work.
6. Curriculum and Teaching Procedures.
7. Health and Physical Development.
8. The Future: Vocational and Education.

The *Mooney Problem Check List, Form H*, was positively responded to by the students, teachers, counselors, and principals.

Conclusions

1. Students are troubled by hundreds of specific problems clustered in eight areas. Five of these are similar to those areas identified by previous studies of student problems in the City of Manila and in some provinces of the Philippines.

2. There are significant relationships among the problem-area patterns of students.

3. The *Mooney Problem Check List, Form H*, may be used as an instrument for research and study of secondary school students in Cagayan until a similar instrument which is worded according to the vocabulary and level of comprehension of the young people is developed for this purpose.

287. ONG, Jaime Salvador (Ph. D.). "Consumers and Consumerism in the Philippines." Stanford University, 1980. 360 pp. Source: DAI, XLI, 5A (November, 1980), 1823-A. XUM Order No. 8024728.

The consumer movement born in the mid-1960s out of concern over automobile safety, pesticide use and related issues has endured through the 1970s, and a number of studies have described consumers' heightened expectations and their demographic and attitudinal correlates. We propose to contribute to this literature by describing the state of consumer expectations in the Philippines and by constructing and testing four models of the development of consumer concern.

The dissertation begins with a discussion of the principal private groups and government agencies involved in consumer protection in the Philippines. Then we propose, on the basis of a literature review, theoretical models that attempt to explain why certain segments of the population might be expected to respond more readily than others to the appeals and arguments of the consumer advocates.

The citizenship model of consumer concern starts with the view of the educational system as a definer and legitimator of citizenship. Those who are educated are accorded full membership status in society, and possess the credentials that entitle them to the rights of citizens. Thus educated consumers are more likely than others to articulate and profess consumer rights, to expect the state to protect these rights, and to respond to perceived violations of these rights in ways that reflect their citizenship status.

The reconstituted marketplace model of consumer concern begins with a distinction between the traditional market, where communication is interpersonal and transactions are conducted face to face, and the reconstituted marketplace, where the meanings needed to facilitate transactions are supplied symbolically and where the personal skills and ties that guarantee some measure of buyer satisfaction in the traditional setting have become irrelevant. This model predicts that consumers in the reconstituted marketplace should perceive a greater imbalance and asymmetry in the buyer-seller relationship, with sellers enjoying greater power, and buyers finding it more difficult to make themselves heard.

The socioeconomic model of consumer argues that high socioeconomic status confers advantages and resources that affect one's expectations as a consumer. Wealthier consumers are more accustomed to having their way, and are better positioned to demand satisfaction and redress. Hence we contend that high socioeconomic class consumers see themselves as enjoying greater choice and corporations as having less power, and will react more forcefully to negative experiences in the marketplace.

The utilitarian model of consumer consciousness argues that concern over product safety, adequate information and choice is likely to be greater among consumers whose rules and responsibilities entail a greater involvement in situations where these concerns are relevant. Specifically, this concern is likely to be greater among women, married people, members of large households and members of households with numerous young children.

These models are formally tested on data obtained from a nationwide survey of 2,499 consumers in the Philippines in 1978. The following results were found as predicted:

1. Education has a positive impact on consumer attitudes and behavior, specifically the desire for government protection and the inclination to complain about unsatisfactory products.
2. High socioeconomic status is similarly related to the tendency to complain and to the perception of corporate power.

There is no support for hypotheses that link presence in the reconstituted marketplace to heightened perceptions of corporate power and concern over the extent to which buyers are attended to and heard. Finally, consumer concern does not appear to be linked to utilitarian considerations rooted in sex-roles or responsibilities over large households and young children. We conclude with an assessment and a consideration of the directions in which these models may be revised and extended.

288. ORQUE, Modesta Soberano (Ed. D.). "An Evaluation of a Caucasian Nursing Students' Home Visiting Program for Culturally Relevant Care of Filipino Families." University of San Francisco, 1979. 359 pp. Source:

Modesta Soberano Orque

DAI, XL, 2B (August, 1979), 677-B. XUM Order No. 7918665.

Thirty-six Caucasian sophomore nursing students enrolled each semester in a family development laboratory experience in the integrated curriculum of the School of Nursing at the University of San Francisco made home visits to twenty Filipino families during either the Fall or the Spring semester of 1976-1977. This home visiting program was evaluated to determine whether having direct contacts with Filipino families would help students achieve the ability to incorporate aspects of Filipino culture in their health care interventions. Students' abilities in this area were determined through the use of ratings on the open book examinations and on nutrition budgets that experimental group students wrote for their Filipino families.

The favorable ratings on the experimental group students' open book examinations and on the nutrition budgets indicated that having direct contacts with Filipino families helped students achieve beginning proficiencies in applying Filipino culture in their health care. The open book examinations and the nutrition budgets were each found to be reliable and correlated to each other indicating their usefulness in determining the ability of students to incorporate aspects of Filipino culture in their health care interventions.

Using a written objective test on ability to incorporate health related aspects of Filipino culture, the study investigated also whether experimental group students who had direct contacts with Filipino families would demonstrate more knowledge of Filipino culture than control group students enrolled in the same laboratory experience who learned about Filipino culture vicariously from seminar discussions with students in the former group. For both semesters, the posttest demonstrated that having direct contacts with Filipino families did not result in experimental group students having more factual knowledge of Filipino culture than control group students. Nor did experimental group students retain more knowledge of Filipino culture than control group students.

Implications of the study for other nursing settings using other levels of nursing students and other ethnic families were explored. Faculty collaboration in the planning, implementation and evaluation of cross-cultural student experiences was also discussed.

The recommendations revolved around three areas:

1. The need to replicate and to expand the current study.
2. The need for further curricular and faculty development in the area of cross-cultural content in nursing.
3. The need to further explore research questions generated by the inclusion of cross-cultural content in nursing curricula.

289. ORTIGAS, Gaston Zavalla (D.B.A.). "The Utilization and Development of Engineering Graduates in Philippine Industry." Harvard University, 1974. 250 pp. Source: DAI, XXXV, 5A (November, 1974), 2475-A. XUM Order No. 74-25,564.

By 1970, the Philippine ratio of engineers to population was many times larger than the other developing countries and approached that of several advanced countries. The economy, however, was absorbing only half of the annual output of engineering graduates and qualified observers thought that the training of most of the graduates was substandard.

At the same time, Philippine industry was taking on more complex technologies and was reaching for the export markets even as domestic competition became keener. The researcher reasoned that the large supply of engineering graduates should be considered a comparative advantage and used to accelerate the assimilation of higher technologies and to improve operating efficiencies.

The research sought to discover what engineering graduates do in Philippine industry, what factors determined how they were employed and to what extent their academic training prepared them for their jobs in industry. The research finds that:

Sixty-two percent (62%) of the engineering graduates were employed as Industrial Managers rather than as Engineers and that managerial activities are very important even for those who were employed as engineers.

The technical and analytical training provided by undergraduate engineering education was highly prized by the engineering graduates and their employers. However, they were dissatisfied with the lack of attention to management skills. Furthermore, those who were industrial managers and those in the manufacturing and service sectors were dissatisfied also with the relevance of the specialization courses-applied engineering they had taken as undergraduates.

The magnitude of engineering graduate employment was influenced by capital intensity, the degree of product or facilities planning, process complexity and the competitive pressures for operating effectiveness. As a corollary, an unfavorable financial condition discouraged the employment of engineering graduates. It was found that these same factors influenced how the engineering graduates viewed career opportunities in their company but that a visible plan for utilization and development was critical for a favorable opinion regarding these career opportunities. This was particularly true for the manufacturing and service companies.

The researcher recommends a program for the increased employment in Philippine industry to improve operating performance. It recommends changes in the engineering curricula to improve the match between academic preparation and job requirements. Finally, it suggests that the possibilities for exporting engineering talent and for increasing the technical research and development activities in the country be seriously explored in order to use the country's potential for engineering education more fully.

Donato Bernardez Pableo

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290. PABLEO, Donato Bernardez (Ed. D.). "A Proposal for Curricular Expansion in Philippine Vocational and Technological Colleges." University of Kentucky, 1955. 191 pp. Source: DAI, XX, 9 (March, 1960), 3601-3602. XUM Order No. Mic 60-691.

A series of surveys on the cultural-socio-economic conditions in the Philippines during the last thirty years reveal these important facts: The country has extensive natural resources which are relatively untouched, much less developed for the support of its people; a serious technological lag exists in agricultural methods and in industrial processes; the present curricula in the Philippine educational institutions are inadequate in their vocational and technical offerings.

Among other things, the surveys recommend that Philippine educational institutions should prepare for development and expansion along agricultural lines and for related and essential industries; that greater emphasis should be given to education for economic productivity; that the economic development program of the country should be given constant detailed engineering and economic study; and that measures should be taken promptly to provide for expansion of the power facilities of the country to enhance its technological development.

Philippine educational institutions should participate actively in the proper implementation of these basic recommendations. To meet the actual needs of the people and the normal development of the country, adequate training facilities for leaders in agriculture and industry should be provided. The vast tracts of agricultural land, the hidden wealth in the mines, the extensive commercial forests--all these will not mean much unless they are fully exploited and harnessed to minister to the happiness and comfort of the people. These can only be developed if the schools and colleges, as agencies for training human power to direct economic development, turn out technically trained individuals who know the improved methods of cultivation and scientific processes of manufacture. This is the challenge to Philippine institutions of higher education.

In this proposal for curricular expansion in Philippine vocational and technological colleges, certain criteria are considered. The economic life of the community should be made the core of the curriculum. School-community relationships should be a cooperative process, since a vocational or technological institution cannot exist apart from the community and be oblivious to the national economic plans intended to create national prosperity and raise the level of living of the people. Curricular expansion should also consider the role of school-community cooperation as giving the latter the necessary help to travel forward under its own power.

The curricular revision is aimed at offering vocational and technological courses which may meet the immediate needs of the country. An institution may adopt only the courses that are best for its purpose. Every institution is expected to take the initiative to improve its curricular offerings which would contribute to the technological development of the country. To guide Philippine institutions of higher learning in this problem was the intent of this dissertation; containing, as it does, specific proposals for basic curricula and detailed courses implementing the recommendations aforementioned.

Any curricular expansion should be in continuous evaluation to stimulate growth and improvement. It should be flexible enough to meet changing trends. Evaluation must always be in terms of goals, as goals focus to the educational process.

The nation's program of economic development demands that greater attention be given to vocational and technological education. The natural resources of the country cannot be adequately developed without the concurrent preparation of its human resources. If the Philippines hopes to be well developed in a permanent and substantial manner, skilled individuals needed for agricultural and industrial enterprises must be trained. They are the backbone of the country's technological development.

The nation should develop skills needed locally and which could be exported. With greater and more serious application, more disciplined effort, increased initiative and industry, and a determined will to achieve, the Philippines shall become a real contributor to the common fund of human knowledge and experience.

291. PACHO, Arturo Guzman (Ph. D.). "Policy Agenda of the Ethnic Chinese in the Philippines." Kent State University, 1981. 281 pp. Source: DAI, XLII, 8A (February, 1982), 3740-A. XUM Order No. 8202165.

The study investigates the policy concerns and preferences of the ethnic Chinese in metropolitan Manila, Philippines. Since political integration is viewed as the goal of any developing nation, these policy concerns are examined and identified in this context. The research framework focuses on four types of policy concerns: instrumentalist, ameliorative, assimilationist, and pluralist. By asking members of the ethnic group to identify, specify, and rank recommendations that would improve their conditions, we infer their position between two continuum--preserving ethnicit

Q-technique was used in developing and ranking the policy concerns of the group. The specific suggestions that were incorporated into this agenda were generated through interviews, review of the literature, and the use of idea writing. There were N=58 statements selected for ranking from most important to most unimportant by n=47 respondents. Factor analysis produced three principal factors: Factors A (Assimilationist/Pluralist), B (Instrumentalist), and C (Ameliorative).

The first factor combines the characteristics of two types of policy concern. Respondents loading on Factor A affirm loyalty to the Philippines, believe in meaningful relations with the majority group, and think that the minority should begin to shape their role as citizens of the Philippines. However, the same factor stresses that the group should be recognized and protected as a distinct cultural minority group. Factor B indicates a desire to foster and preserve the Chinese legacy and tradition but also more protection under an uncertain political environment. Factor C indicates total support to the Philippines while giving priority concerns for ameliorative, welfare, and redistributive services for the ethnic Chinese. Those loading on Factor C have a low regard for reinforcing the Chinese culture or language and see no need for an explicit government policy towards the Chinese.

Demographic, social, and economic data and the current policies of the Philippine Government towards this minority group are also discussed. Two policy issues (citizenship and education) are presented to understand the problems faced by the group and to examine the tension between the requirements for integration and the basic need of the minority group to preserve its cultural and ethnic identity.

292. PAK, Harry Yonghoon (Th. D.). "Teaching-and-Learning in a Cross-Cultural Setting: Philippine Higher Education as a Case Study." Graduate Theological Union, 1973. 354 pp. Source: DAI, XXXIV, 12A, Part 1 (June, 1974), 7554-A. XUM Order No. 74-4173.

The increased opportunities for international, intercultural interaction, uniquely possible in our time, are an ambiguous phenomenon. The increased contacts with the rest of the world may enable a nation to put its own national and cultural heritage into a world perspective, appreciating its uniqueness without necessarily assuming it to be either superior or inferior to that of others. But the very same contacts have often helped the affluent nations to assume that power and advanced technology denote a superior civilization and that they have a right to manipulate the poor and the powerless. Because of the latter, there have been in the recent years an assertion of ethnic awareness among the minority groups within a nation and an affirmation of nationalism, especially among the developing nations of the world. The simultaneous emergence of nationalism and ethnic awareness, however, is also an ambiguous phenomenon. It can develop necessary pride and sense of worth in one's ethnic origin and one's own culture. But it can also isolate an ethnic group or a nation from the mainstream of the world's ideas and events.

To utilize the increased opportunities for international, intercultural interaction in order to help develop reciprocity and solidarity among all persons, while avoiding the danger of the global manipulation of the poor and the powerless by the rich and the powerful; to rejoice in the assertion of nationalism and ethnic pride among the "have not" peoples of the world, realizing that they represent the vehicle for developing in them the needed sense of worth, while helping to avoid these movements from becoming nationally and culturally isolationistic--these are some of the crucial issues of our time.

The increased international, intercultural interaction with its attendant ambiguity is also an inescapable dimension in higher education. The contemporary higher education is also experiencing the simultaneous emergence of nationalism and ethnic awareness with the same attendant ambiguity. We pick out as a case study the educational system in the Republic of the Philippines. The Philippine educational system was born of intercultural contact. Historically it has been under the influence initially of the Spaniards and then the Americans. Often it became the tool to help increase the possibility for the manipulation of a poor and powerless nation by their powerful colonizers. Since the Independence, however, the Philippines has been attempting to indigenize its educational system. It has been utilized to awaken national consciousness and to promote national development with the attendant danger of isolationism. In anthropological terms, historically, the Philippines has been exemplified by the export of education for acculturation by alien powers. Since the Independence, however, there has been a reaction against an acculturative educational system and an accompanying attempt to make it enculturative.

But Philippine education should not be bi-polar, that is, either purely acculturative or enculturative. There can be an intercultural teaching-and-learning on a genuine parity basis. More specifically, Martin Buber's understanding of dialogue in an I-Thou relationship translated to an intercultural teaching-and-learning situation offers a meaningful alternative.

In a dialogical teaching-and-learning, teacher's tasks are three-fold: to be a student of students, to initiate the dialogue with the learners, and to create an environment most conducive to dialogue. In an intercultural setting involving, for example, American teachers and Filipino students, the teacher's tasks remain three-fold. However, when a teacher represents a different culture from that of the students, to understand, particularly, what unique cultural factors help shape the students is absolutely necessary. Thus an American teacher would seek to find the intrinsic understanding of those cultural values which help shape the Filipino students by "crossing over" and "experiencing the other side." When pursued earnestly, it can lead to mutual enrichment and new creative insights for everyone involved in the intercultural, dialogical teaching-and-learning.

293. PAL, Agaton Palen (Ph. D.). "A Philippine Barrio: A Study of Social Organizations in Relation to Planned Cultural Change." Cornell University, 1956. 434 pp. Source: DAI, XVI, 8 (1956), 1529-1530. XUM No. 17,006.

The Philippine government has started a nationwide program to improve the social and economic conditions of barrios (villages). This program necessitates the introduction of new technologies. The promotion of the acceptance of technological changes with a minimum of social disorganization among the barrio people is the problem of this study.

-1-

The introduction of new technologies into the barrio involves a number of variables, among which are: X_1 - the agent of change, X_2 - the nature of change, X_3 - the method of introducing change, and X_4 - the people to whom the change is to be introduced. X_1, X_2, and X_3 are relatively easier to vary and to control than X_4: X_1 can be chosen on the basis of desired qualifications, X_2 can be modified in form, meaning, and/or function, and X_3 is flexible.

The manipulation of X_4 is restricted by the democratic philosophy of the country which puts primacy on the welfare of the individual citizen. Therefore X_1, X_2, and X_3 should be adapted to X_4. This approach requires a thorough understanding of X_4.

-II-

The case study of a barrio reveals that:

1. The basic economic problem of the barrio is low production per unit area of land. This is due to antiquated agricultural methods and diminishing fertility of the land.

2. The barrio is a gemeinschaft social group. This characteristic is maintained by the common occupation of farming, low mobility, isolation from means of transportation and communication, common religious beliefs, and strong kinship ties.

3. Every extended kinship has two or three persons who are looked up to by the others as the origin of permission or influence.

4. Most influential persons in the town are ceremonial kinsmen of many families in the barrio. These persons function as the "first gatekeepers" of the barrio.

5. Beyond the kinship circle, there are persons in the barrio who are origins of permission or influence for certain activities. These persons are: the traditional doctor, the midwife, the Hermano Mayor (Fiesta Committee Chairman), the barrio lieutenant, and the teachers. These persons constitute the "second gatekeepers" of the barrio.

6. There are several occasions when the people are gath-

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ered together. These gatherings latently function as mechanisms for the diffusion of ideas in the barrio. Some of these occasions are: the barrio fiesta, marriage, death, market day, and group work.

7. The diffusion of ideas operates on a person-to-person basis. Each sex category serves as a vertical channel and each age category as a horizontal channel in the transmission of ideas.

8. The cultural changes between two generations have been more in technology than in ideology. These changes are in the form of modification of, or addition to, the existing cultural traits.

9. One category of likely acceptors of change is those who have had four or more years of formal education. The other category is those who have the characteristic of curiosity.

10. In the philosophical outlook of the people, they perceive their welfare as subject to the pleasure or displeasure of supernatural beings. Their efforts to attain their welfare are oriented to making harmonious adjustments to, and propitiating, the supernatural beings.

-III-

A barrio development program is formulated on the basis of the findings about the barrio. The desired qualifications of an agent are chosen in terms of personal attributes which make for effective dealing with the people. Technologies to be introduced are also chosen in terms of the cultural base of the barrio. Likewise, the methods of introducing the changes are designed to utilize the endorsement and cooperation of the "gatekeepers" of the barrio, and to make use of local mechanisms for the diffusion of ideas.

294. PANCHO, Justina Garalde (Ed. D.). "A Study of Professional Opinions on the Preparation of Teachers in Methods

of Teaching Social Studies Given at Philippine Normal College." University of California, Berkeley, 1962. Source: Stucki, p. 88; and Abstract from UC, Berkeley, Library.

The purposes of this study were:

1. To evaluate preparation methods of teaching social studies at Philippine Normal College.

2. To derive some clues for improving pre-service training methods of teaching social studies at the college.

The data were obtained from 208 questionnaires answered by teachers, administrators, district supervisors, and social studies supervisors and from personal interviews with 146 of the participants. The teachers were graduates of the Philippine Normal College in 1955-56 and 1956-57. The administrators and supervisors who participated were those working with the participating teachers.

The major findings were:

1. Over one-half the teachers considered the methods program least helpful to them in understanding social studies objectives.

2. Three-fourths of the respondents stated that their training was least helpful to moderately helpful in preparing them to meet the different needs of children, to understand different curriculum organizations and to utilize the basic social functions in the community; supervisors and principals believed the background of teachers concerning different types of curriculum organizations was very inadequate.

3. More than one-half the graduates considered the methods program least helpful to moderately helpful in utilizing the growth characteristics of children in planning classroom situations.

4. The interviews indicated that there was not enough ex-

perience in diagnosing children's interests and needs, checking the accuracy of information, selecting methods or handling controversial issues.

5. Teachers, supervisors and principals considered preparation of teachers inadequate in evaluating outcomes of social studies teaching.

6. The methods program was believed to be moderately helpful in relating the social studies program to the overall program of the school. It was considered very helpful in relating sequences from grade to grade.

7. There was indication that it was very helpful to moderately helpful in developing a rich background of experience when starting a unit and in drawing upon other areas of the curriculum to enrich social studies teaching.

Suggestions for improvement of the methods program were:

1. It should stress the importance of objectives in social studies.

2. It should emphasize different bases in organizing experiences and teaching units; different curriculum organizations should be distinguished from each other.

3. Growth characteristics of children should be studied as they relate to the selection of units and selection of experiences for children.

4. Specific teaching techniques should be discussed.

5. Students should be trained to check accuracy of information read or heard and controversial issues should be included.

6. Evaluation should be considered with reference to the objectives of social studies, and the proper evaluative devices and how to use them should be included.

7. More guided assistance should be extended to the student for acquiring techniques and skills in teaching.

8. The internship should integrate theory and practice in human relations as well as techniques of teaching.

295. **PARCO**, Salvador Abonal (Ph. D.). "Social Status and Dissatisfaction with the Government of the Philippines." Pennsylvania State University, 1973. 134 pp. Source: DAI, XXXV, 3A (September, 1974), 1759-A. XUM Order No. 74-20,897.

Data collected in 1965-1966 from a sample of 754 Filipinos were used to test the hypotheses that those persons who hold high status positions within a society would be more satisfied with the existing government than those who hold low status positions.

Socioeconomic status was measured by land ownership, monthly income, education, and employment. Dissatisfaction with the government was interpreted as the discrepancy between the respondents' definition of government's obligations to the people and their perceptions of its performance in helping the people in eight areas of community life, including owning more land and things, getting higher earnings, having better educational and employment opportunities, having political contacts and office, and maintaining peace and order. Rural-urban residence, level of development, and economic base of the community were incorporated as control variables. F-tests were computed to determine statistical significance.

The data showed no simple pattern. Many Filipinos were dissatisfied with the government in most areas of activity. However, there were some who seemed to be completely happy with the government and others who had very low dissatisfaction scores in nearly all of the areas studied. Highest rates of dissatisfaction were expressed regarding economic matters: owning more land, having more things, better employment opportunities, and higher earnings.

Employment status and education related most clearly and consistently to dissatisfaction, with education relating negatively. Land owned, income, and employment related curvilinearly to dissatisfaction with the government, with persons having the highest and lowest socioeconomic status being the most satisfied with the government's activities; the middle levels were the least contented.

Controlling for place of residence and development level did not alter the associations between the SES measures and dissatisfaction. In addition, neither the main nor interactive effects of these variables were, in general, statistically significant. However, when economic base was controlled, the relationships between each of the four status measures and dissatisfaction declined. More important, economic base was itself highly and significantly related to all eight areas of government dissatisfaction. The highest degree of discontent was found in the rice and fishing communities. Residents of coconut and sugar communities in general had much lower levels of dissatisfaction.

There was some evidence of a possible interactive effect of socioeconomic status and economic base on dissatisfaction. In the coconut and sugar communities people with higher SES as measured by land owned, income, and education tended to be slightly more dissatisfied with the government than did those with lower SES. In the rice and fishing communities, however, the reverse was true with the higher the socioeconomic status as measured by these variables, the less the dissatisfaction level.

296. PASCASIO, Emy Mariano (Ph. D.). "A Descriptive-Comparative Study Predicting Interference and Facilitation for Tagalog Speakers in Learning English Noun-Head Modification Patterns." University of Michigan, 1960. 192 pp. Source: DAI, XXI, 8 (February, 1961), 2288-2289. XUM Order No. Mic 60-6919.

The descriptive-comparative studies of two given languages make it possible to locate points of similarity and difference between these two languages, and to predict more precisely the interference and facilitation the speakers will encounter in learning the new language.

The purpose of this study was threefold:

1. To compare a part of English syntax with an equivalent part of Tagalog syntax.
2. To predict the points of interference and facilitation that will arise at this syntactical level for Tagalog speakers learning English and classify them on different levels of ease and difficulty.
3. To prepare sample testing materials based on the predicted points of interference and facilitation and to administer these tests to a sampling of Tagalog speakers to verify the predictions made.

Since the complete comparison of two languages is a task of great magnitude, this study was limited to some of the major noun-head modification structural patterns. The procedures for comparison set up by Robert Lado in his book, Linguistics Across Cultures, were followed.

In the comparative analysis, the similarities and differences of English and Tagalog were assumed to be a function of three linguistic factors: form, meaning, and distribution. Form refers to the shape of the elements in isolated forms as well as in sequences, to the order of elements, to stress, and to function words in relation to the other elements in the construction. Meaning refers to the grammatical meaning, that is, the modifier in its relation to the head. Distribution refers to the occurrence of the construction in the larger structural patterns of the language; this was restricted to subject function.

The predicted language learning problems were classified under two types, reception and production, because some patterns were assumed to be easier to recognize than to produce. Then these predicted problems were assigned to different levels of ease and difficulty arranged in ascending order from A to D. To verify the predictions made, a special exploratory test was constructed and administered to three hundred Tagalog students in the Philippines.

The test results confirmed the predictions made. The proportion of wrong answers increased from Level A through Level D. The differences were statistically significant.

The conclusions and implications made as a result of this study are:

1. There is an effect of previously learned language habits upon foreign language learning; the similar elements were found easy and those different ones difficult.
2. A comparison of the students' native language and the language to be learned furnishes a basis for better description of the language learning problems involved, preparation of teaching materials, and constructions of tests for diagnostic and evaluation purposes.
3. It is not only possible to predict areas of interference as well as facilitation between the two languages but also to rank them into different levels of ease and difficulty.
4. Empirical evidence is helpful in verifying predicted language learning problems and also in unravelling other problems involved.
5. Teachers with a knowledge of such problems can be expected to guide their students better. They will understand the cause of an error and be better able to prepare corrective drills.
6. The learning burden can be graded according to difficulty instead of arranging the lesson series in a purely logical sequence.

297. PERALTA, Crescencio Guidote (Ph. D.). "Teacher Education for Rural Philippine Life." Stanford University, 1952. Source: Eells, p. 122; and Stanford University, ABSTRACTS OF DISSERTATIONS (1951-52), pp. 665-666.

Crescencio Guidote Peralta

This study underscores the fact that after more than four hundred years of Philippine education under Spain, the United States of America, and the Philippine Republic, only a handful of leaders had been trained and the masses are, today, still living in "ignorance, poverty, squalor and disease." This educational situation has been aggravated by the recent war.

An analysis was made of a vast amount of data contained in economic surveys, official censuses, reports of various government agencies, reports of investigation boards of Filipino and American experts, reports of commissions of United Nations agencies who studied Philippine postwar conditions, and books on Philippine problems and conditions authored by Filipino and foreign observers. All these sources revealed the fact that there are serious shortages in Philippine life, especially rural life.

The study stresses the following rural shortages:

1. Socioeconomic and politico-ideological
    a. Very low agricultural production due to primitive farming and unscientific practices.
    b. Feudalistic system of land tenure which has enslaved tenants for generations and continues to do so.
    c. Subexistence income level of the rural people.
    d. Deplorable health conditions in the home and the community.
    e. Low tone of official morality in some governmental quarters, from the local to the national level.
    f. The barren social and cultural life as the combined result of some or all of the foregoing.
2. Education
    a. War destruction of school buildings and equipment aggravated the problem of pupil-overagedness.

b. Present school system in reality is only a four-grade system--a vast number of Filipinos never go beyond grade four.

c. The great number of "drop-outs" swell the number of illiterates (51.1 percent in 1949).

d. The serious need for more public libraries.

e. An impoverished elementary school curriculum--same for urban and rural areas.

f. Over 50 percent of elementary school teachers, especially those in the rural areas, possess no professional training.

g. Present teacher education program does not prepare teachers for the specific needs of the rural areas.

The study then proceeded to examine the successful rural education practices in representative countries with conditions comparable to those in the Philippines: Denmark Mexico, the United States of America, and current trends in Italy, Uruguay, Syria, Brazil, Ecuador, and Turkey were studied. The net result of the investigation in comparative school systems invariably pointed to the rural teacher, who is specifically trained for work in the rural areas, as one of the strategic factors, if not the most strategic factor, responsible for the effective solution of shortages in the rural areas.

On the bases of these findings the study proposes a two-year program of teacher education which will specifically prepare Filipino teachers for the rural areas. The first year offers the following courses: English I and II, National Language I and II, child growth and development I and II, music and art education, health education I (personal health), health education II (community health), our country and our people, and elementary curriculum and classroom practices. The second year of the program offers the following courses: elementary curriculum and classroom practices, rural sociology, the world around us, practical arts, homemaking and fundamental and adult education. Two types of practice teaching are required: on campus and off campus. Each period of practice teaching is preceded by a preteaching seminar for orientation purposes. A two-week send-off seminar follows the termination of the off-campus practice teaching to clinch the prospective rural teacher's education.

For illustration, such courses as personal and community health--studied not alone from books or lectures but also by "experiencing" through observation, investigation, problem-solving and surveys in the community--definitely prepares the rural teacher to meet specific rural community shortages in health. In short, the prospective rural teacher utilizes the rural community as his laboratory in connection with his general as well as professional education. Learning in this rural community situation consists of meeting, studying, and solving real problems under college faculty guidance instead of relying primarily on the formulating of answers to hypothetical problems from books.

The study also outlines the steps that should be taken in implementing the proposals, including the legal aspects, the administrative structure of the rural normal school, the staff, and proposes the regional location of the first rural normal school.

298. **PERALTA**, Maria Cid Y Adiarte De (Ph. D.). "An Analysis of Procedures for Improving Curriculum Development in the Philippines." University of Chicago, 1952. 347 pp. Source: Eells, p. 122.

299. **PEREZ**, Carolina Villarin (Ed. D.). "The Development and Evaluation of a Test of Science Processes for Use in the Philippines." University of Maryland, 1978. 198 pp. Source: DAI, XXXIX, 6A (December, 1978), 3496-A. 198 pp. XUM Order No. 7824003.

Carolina Villarin Perez

The main purpose of the study was to develop and evaluate a test designed to assess the skills of Filipino sixth-grade graduates to use the science processes of observing, comparing, quantifying, measuring, classifying, inferring, predicting, and experimenting. The current elementary science program in the Philippines emphasizes the development of the skills to use these science processes. The current development of curricular materials for secondary school science is likewise based on the assumption that the prospective users of the materials have already acquired the skills to use the science processes. This assumption had to be substantiated by assessing the skills of sixth-grade graduates to use the science processes. However, there was a lack of a valid and reliable test to assess these skills of the Filipino children. Hence the need for the study.

The Perez Test of Science Processes (PTSP), developed in this study, is a 60-minute pencil and paper test consisting of 67 five-choice test items arranged in random order with regard to the science processes they assessed. These test items were distributed among the eight science processes as follows: eleven items on observing; six items on comparing; eight items on quantifying; thirteen items on measuring; eleven items on classifying; seven items on inferring; five items on predicting; and six items on experimenting. The eight science processes addressed by the PTSP were identified and defined in behavioral terms after reviewing the science curriculum guides and texts used in the Philippines, statements of the psychology of science learning and the philosophy of science and science education, and rationale of various curriculum projects. It was observed that the current elementary science program in the Philippines was designed to enable the pupils to acquire skills to use the science processes addressed by the PTSP. Therefore, the moderately high correlation between the children's performance on the PTSP with their previous achievement in elementary science, as measured by their course grade in sixth-grade science, was taken as evidence that the PTSP is a valid measure of children's skills to use the science processes.

The PTSP was evaluated twice. The first consisted of the curricular validation by the panel of five Filipino science educators and the pilot evaluation of the test by administering it to 1,705 pupils about to finish sixth grade in ten schools located in Luzon. The second was done by administering the revised PTSP to 1,771 students starting their first year in six high schools located in the three island groups, Luzon, Visayas, and Mindanao, that comprise the Philippines. The revised PTSP had a KR20 reliability coefficient of .87 which is adequate for comparing average scores for large groups of individuals. The test had a mean item difficulty of .39. Forty-eight of the sixty-seven test items discriminated effectively.

The study might be continued to improve the test items that did not discriminate effectively as well as to develop a system which would chart the relationships among the behaviors characterizing the science processes. Once the science processes are systematically established, curricular materials in science should be prepared to enable the students to acquire the skills to use the science processes in the proper sequence. In future research studies the PTSP could serve as a criterion of performance in answering such research questions as:

a. Do elementary school graduates who have acquired the skills to use the science processes perform better in the secondary school science program?

b. How effective is the elementary science program in developing the skills to use the science processes?

c. How do elementary school graduates from different schools compare in their ability to use the science processes?

Future studies might also consider establishing the construct validity of the test.

300. PEREZ, Presentacion T. (Ph. D.). "Problems of Employed Women in Certain Professional Groups in the Philippines and Their Educational Implications." University of Minnesota, 1954. 318 pp. Source: DAI, XV, 3 (1955),

Presentacion T. Perez

359-360. XUM Order No. 11,113.

Objective

The primary objective of this study is to identify some of the occupational and home problems of Filipino women in the professions and those working below the professional level as a basis for curriculum construction. A secondary consideration is to determine the point of view of their employers regarding the pre-service training of the women working under their supervision. In order to have a better understanding of their problems, a brief discussion on Filipino traditions and customs is included.

Method

The questionnaire method of gathering the data was chosen. Data were sought from three different groups of persons namely: professional women, women working below the professional level, and the employers of both groups. The focus was upon the professional group.

Systematic sampling procedures were used in determining the geographical area to be surveyed. Eleven provinces representing four provincial regions in the Philippines and the city of Manila comprised the areas included in this study.

Typical occupations of the women in the professions were analyzed by consulting the 1948 census of the Philippines and other statistical bulletins published by various bureaus of the Philippine Republic.

Rosters of women employees were requested from their employers. A random sample was taken from rosters consisting of the names of 9,540 women professionals and 1,093 women working below the professional level. A ninety-five per cent response was obtained from a ten per cent sample, selected at random, of the professional women. The same percentage returns was obtained from a 21 per cent sample of the women working below the professional level. One hundred per cent of the employers responded to the questionnaires.

Problems of the Respondents

The women professionals encountered several home and occupational problems--some of which were related to Filipino customs and traditions.

The professional respondents from the provincial regions had less education than those residing in the city of Manila. More than half of those who had baccalaureate degrees and certificates obtained their degrees and certificates from private co-educational non-sectarian institutions of higher learning. However, the public university ranked second in awarding the degrees to these women.

When the respondents were asked about the shortcomings of the undergraduate courses, they mentioned the following with the greatest frequency:

1. Little class participation.

2. Elective subjects were not electives but required.

3. Too much book study to the neglect of other campus activities.

4. Too much theory without accompanying practice.

Recommendations

There is a great need for vocational guidance clinics in secondary schools. There is also a need for vocational course offerings in schools. The vocational training of the women working below the professional level seems to be inadequate according to their employers. These women had a surprisingly high educational level of 11 years and yet were working on rather low vocational levels. The curriculum problem relates to a need for more specific training to assist them in getting better jobs.

For the professional respondents, in-service training should be highly developed in view of the fact that more than half of them had only two years of college education. Summer institutes should be extended to those residing in the southern Islands.

A professional course in home economics should be a part of the curriculum in the education of women in the Islands. A course in budgeting, child development, food selection, clothing construction, community health and human relationships should parallel the course in specific vocations.

Finally it is recommended that careful thought be given to the possibility of expanding the guidance and counselling services available to women. Professional guidance courses should be offered to prospective teachers. The university should take a lead in this important service for the people of the Philippines.

301. PEREZ, Primitiva P. (Ed. D.). "Minimum Vocabulary Lists in the Philippine National Language for Use in Teaching Spelling in the Elementary Schools." University of Kentucky, 1962. 130 pp. Source: DAI, XXX, 6A (December, 1969), 2404-A-2405-A. XUM Order No. 69-20,434.

The Problem

The main purpose of this study is to establish a minimum vocabulary list in Philippine national language (Tagalog) which the elementary school teachers can use in teaching spelling.

Specifically, the problem seeks:

1. To discover the 300 most commonly used words of the primary school children in their written vocabulary; also, the 300 most commonly used words of the intermediate school pupils.
2. To determine the degree of spelling difficulty of these commonly used words.
3. To present the final minimum Tagalog word list and its uses.

The study was confined to the elementary schools in the province of Batangas, Philippines.

Methods and Procedures

Two major steps were involved in seeking the answers to the problem. First, the most commonly used Tagalog words were identified by tabulating the words from 100 original compositions and five basic readers of the elementary school children. A total of 1,597 different words from 22,762 running words for the primary grades and 3,422 different words from 13,163 running words for the intermediate grades were recorded. From the total, the first 300 words with the highest frequencies were taken to constitute the most commonly used words. Two temporary word lists were produced.

Second, the degree of spelling difficulty of each word was determined by giving the word lists as spelling tests to the elementary school children. The number of checks for each word was interpreted to be the degree of spelling difficulty, which is expressed in terms of percentage of passing.

Lastly, the number of words in the temporary lists were reduced by removing the overlapping words which were easy to spell. The result was two final lists of 300 words for the primary grades and 197 words for the intermediate grades.

Findings and Conclusions

The 300 words (600 words for both temporary word lists) were found to be the most commonly used Tagalog words of the elementary school children. A mastery of these words will take care of nearly three-fourths of the primary grade children's writing needs and approximately four-fifths of the intermediate grade children's writing vocabulary.

The words were relatively easy to spell. Two-thirds of the words in the primary grade list were passed by one-half of the primary group and four-fifths of the words in the intermediate grade list were passed by one-half of the intermediate children.

The easier words are largely monosyllabic and disyllabic, while the harder ones are trisyllabic. This supports the contention that length of words and degree of spelling difficulty are positively correlated.

The word lists have an important place in the spelling program as a basic source list and the suggested uses of the word lists will facilitate the learning and teaching of the National Language.

Recommendations

The minimum vocabulary lists may be used in teaching elementary school children to learn to write in the national language not only in the Tagalog provinces, but also in the non-Tagalog regions throughout the Philippines.

The intermediate grade list needs to be expanded by adding to it the Tagalog words most commonly used by adults in their correspondence, newspapers, and magazines. Likewise, the primary grade list should be expanded by adding to it the Tagalog words most commonly used by the primary grade children in their oral or spoken vocabulary.

A more extensive study may be made on the writing vocabulary of children inside the school covering all phases of school work and also the children's writing outside the school.

The present list may be used as a norm or as a check on those who need additional training in spelling. Similarity of word structure may be used in the order of teaching the words instead of the degree of spelling difficulty as used in the present list.

Lastly, similar vocabulary studies may be made in other Tagalog provinces and a composite graded vocabulary list may be established wherein the words are grouped according to each grade level.

302. PINEDA, Juliana Cruz (Ed. D.). "A Critical Study of the Supervisory Program and Practices in the Philippines in the Light of Certain Principles of Democratic Su-

Juliana Cruz Pineda

pervision." Indiana University, 1951. 160 pp. Source: Indiana University, School of Education, STUDIES IN EDUCATION (Thesis Abstract Series, 1951), pp. 107-112.

Background of the Problem

The Filipinos are evidently committed to the democratic form of government and to the democratic way of life. The preamble of the Constitution of the Republic of the Philippines declares that it was promulgated by the people to "secure to themselves and their posterity the blessings of independence under a regime of justice, liberty, and democracy." Section 5, Article XIV, of the Constitution states that "it shall be the aim of all schools to develop moral character, personal discipline, civic conscience, and vocational efficiency, and to teach the duties of citizenship."

In his The Philippine Educational System, Isidro quotes the following curriculum objective of education as set up by the Bureau of Public Schools: "To produce well-balanced citizens who are prepared to take their proper places as individuals and as members of their respective social groups in a democracy." The former National Council on Education stated the objective of education in the Philippines thus: "To inculcate in our people the ideals of democracy; to make them realize that the fundamental rights of man should be preserved at any cost if they are to attain self-fulfillment."

The writer, having served the Department of Education for 30 years, is thoroughly familiar with the supervisory program and practices in the school system. After a few semesters' study in Indiana University, she realized that there was a wide discrepancy between the professed objectives of education and the supervisory and teaching techniques employed by the entire staff. She therefore decided to make a critical study of the supervisory program and practices in the Philippines in the light of the most recent thinking on democratic supervision in the United States.

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The Problem

The problem, then, is to determine whether the supervisory program and practices in the Philippine public school system are in accord with certain principles of democratic supervision in the United States and to propose a plan of democratizing supervision.

More specifically, the questions to be answered are:

What seems to be the conception of supervision in the Philippines as revealed by the supervisors' observation notes?

What principles of democratic supervision in the United States could very well be adopted for the guidance of supervisors in the Philippines?

What course of action may be followed to democratize supervision in the Philippine public schools?

To answer these questions, this study proposes:

1. To present a general picture of the supervisory program and practices in the Philippine public schools.
2. To check these practices against certain criteria of democratic supervision in the United States.
3. To propose certain steps that might be taken in preplanning, which might point out the way to actual planning of a democratic program.

Limitations of the Study

In this study the writer confines herself to the study of the supervisory aspect of education, with emphasis on the processes employed in supervision. The present content of education is not discussed, but certain materials which may be included in content because of their importance in developing the democratic way of life are brought out to a certain extent. It is believed that the proper use of the group process at all levels of the educational system will lead to cooperative criticism and development or revision of the curriculum so that it may be more responsive to the needs of people in a democratic society. Therefore, stress will be laid on determining what steps may be taken that may lead to the democratization of the thinking and ways of peoples concerned with supervision.

Method of Procedure

To determine the objectives of education in the Philippines, a study has been made of the pertinent portions of the Constitution of the Republic of the Philippines. For a statement of the weaknesses in teaching procedures for which the supervisors could be held responsible, the report of the UNESCO Consultative Mission was studied. The Bell Mission Report was used as reference to determine the economic needs of the Filipinos at present. A sampling of the supervisors' observation notes, on Bureau of Public Schools Form 178 furnished by the Director of Public Schools and considered by him as representative, were examined to determine the extent of the supervisors' awareness of principles of democratic supervision. The picture of the present supervisory program and the comments and recommendations made by the UNESCO Consultative Mission provide a clue as to what steps should be taken. Changes must be made in the supervisory program, but changes in education should not be made without consideration of relevant elements of the culture. Hence a study is made of certain traditions, traits, and ideals as well as certain economic needs of the people and of their relation to such democratic principles as the dignity and worth of the individual, reliance upon the method of intelligence, and reliance upon the cooperative use of intelligence in the solution of problems. Certain steps in pre-planning are then proposed.

The Supervisory Program and Practices in the Philippines

The Philippine public school system is highly centralized on the national level, and the organization is the rigid line-and-staff kind. Aided by his staff in the General Office in Manila, the Director of Public Schools administers the national system, and authority flows from the top down through the superintendents and principals to the teachers of the remotest village.

Supervision is done on all levels: local, district, provincial, and national. An idea of the amount of supervision to which a teacher is subjected can be obtained when the case of a small town teacher is considered with respect to supervision. A first grade teacher is supervised by her principal, by the supervisor of the district to which the town belongs, by the provincial academic supervisor, by the special subject supervisors of the province like the National Language supervisor and the health supervisor, by the superintendent of the province, by supervisors from the General Office, namely, the general elementary supervisor, and the health, athletic, and National Language supervisors. Each supervisor on a given level may also be checked by supervisors on the higher levels.

To improve the teaching-learning situation, Filipino supervisors employ practically all of the techniques discussed in the books on supervision which were considered authoritative during the 1930's; such as those by Barr, Burton, Nutt, Kyte, Ayer, and others. The supervisors conduct teachers' meetings, institutes, vacation schools, demonstration classes, conferences, intervisitation, and classroom visitation. Most of the supervisors' time, however, is devoted to classroom visitation and writing observation notes and suggestions.

Every teacher in the Philippines is provided with an official notebook called the Bureau of Public Schools Form 178. The classroom teacher hands this notebook to any supervisory official who comes in to observe the class work. The supervisor is supposed to stay at least the entire period in which a subject is taught. During this period, which may last from 10 to 40 minutes depending upon the subject, the supervisor takes in the whole situation and may write down comments and suggestions on anything and everything. She writes her observation notes in triplicate. The original copy is left with the teachers, the duplicate is submitted to the office of the superintendent, and the triplicate is left with the principal. A post-observation conference with the individual teacher or with a group may be conducted at the discretion of the supervisor. Containing as it does a detailed record of the teacher's class work, Form 178 is used as reference in rating teachers.

Because of the universal use made of Form 178 and the importance given to it by the system, it has been used in this study as the source of information regarding the supervisors' conception of supervision. Upon request by the investigator for what may be considered a representative sampling of Forms 178 from the field, the Director of Public Schools caused to be sent to her copies of the forms from 115 supervisors and principals. The forms were from the city of Manila and from three provinces. Examination of these forms revealed the following facts:

1. The points covered by the comments and suggestions by the supervisors are so varied and so numerous that they defy classification.

2. Everything in the room and every act of the teacher or of the pupils can be the object of the supervisor's commendation or condemnation, depending upon whether they meet her own personal standards or not. She is the sole judge to evaluate them.

3. The supervisor freely tells the teacher what is right and what is wrong and what should be done. This practice seems to indicate a relationship between a superior who is conceded to know all the answers and an inferior or a subordinate who has to accept everything doled out by the supervisor.

4. A good deal of the supervisor's work is checking, as shown by the fact that he constantly invites the teacher's attention to bulletins, outlines, courses of study, and manuals as well as to observance of time allotment, lesson plans, board work, etc.

5. Comments on minute points or steps in the teacher's procedure seem to indicate the assumption that there is one correct procedure of performing every activity.

6. All criticisms are directed to the teacher as if the success of the teaching-learning act rested entirely on her. Other contributory factors seem to be overlooked.

7. The freedom with which the supervisor expresses approval or disapproval of the many aspects of classroom situations would make one think the feelings of the

teacher as a person are a matter of little or no consequence.

Appraisal of Supervision in the Philippine Public Schools

In this study the criteria which are used in appraising supervision are those principles of democracy which have been emphasized in almost all books and articles on administration and supervision during the last 20 years and discussed with respect to their application in the yearbooks of the National Education Association. Interaction, participation, sharing, creativeness, group deliberation and discussion, consensus, and evaluation by all people concerned seem to have been taken as the hallmarks of democratic relationships. These stem from such fundamental principles as respect for the human personality, recognition of interdependence among individuals and between groups and individuals, and reliance upon the pooling of group intelligence to resolve group problems.

In the belief that the many characteristics of democratic relationships have been synthesized into five simple categories by Kimball Wiles in his Supervision for Better Schools, this writer has adopted these five categories as a guide in appraising supervision in the Philippines from the standpoint of democracy. According to Wiles, supervision should be characterized by these five skills:

1. Skill in leadership.

2. Skill in human relations.

3. Skill in group process.

4. Skill in personnel administration.

5. Skill in evaluation.

While these categories are used for the sake of convenience, the discussion of each of them is based on this writer's extensive readings in these areas. To simplify the manner of checking the supervisory program and practices in the Philippines against these criteria, three questions which summarize the distinguishing characteristics of each skill have been formulated.

Checked against these five criteria of democratic supervision, the supervisory program and practices in the Philippine public school system appear to fall short of what would be considered democratic.

The Starting Point in Educational Planning

An authoritarian system of education with its concomitant authoritarian practices would seem to be anomalous in a society whose avowed ideal is democracy. Plans for reforming both organization and practice seem to be timely. Since educational planning should not be done apart from the social context, the writer proposes the study of the ideals, traditions, and traits of the Filipino people as well as the economic status of the country as the starting point in any plan to reorganize the Philippine educational system and reform the supervisory practices. The study of these elements of the culture should not consist in merely ascertaining the facts. Facts and conditions will be evaluated in the light of democratic ideals and through democratic processes in which all social groups are represented. Through collaborative deliberation, the people will more or less clearly envision their ideal state where every person will have equal opportunity for developing his capacities to the utmost and for enjoying the goods of life.

After acquainting themselves with the cultural background of the educational system, those who plan educational reforms may then consider the needs of the members of the staff and some evident needs of the system. They will look into those personal, economic, social, educational, and professional needs of the teachers which should be met if teachers are to exercise leadership in a democratic society. They will see that Filipino teachers are beset by fears because of economic and professional insecurity. The very nature of the system and the supervisory program and practices keep the teachers under tension almost all the time. Naturally, the logical effects are also felt by pupils and other people who come in contact with the teachers.

Possible High Spots in Philippine Educational Planning

In order to achieve its objective of preparing young people to take their proper place in a democratic society, the Philippine educational system as a whole has to be reorganized to make democratic cooperation at all levels possible. But before the new system can operate along democratic lines, there must be a clearer understanding of the meaning and implications of Philippine democracy.

Such steps as the following may be necessary to democratize minds, systems, and practices in the Philippines:

1. A joint conference of congressmen, top educators, and eminent laymen might be held to discuss the meaning of Philippine democracy.

2. A conference of congressmen, educators, economists, and industrialists might study how the schools could be placed on a stable economic basis, so that teachers could be assured of adequate salaries to meet their present needs and insure future security.

3. A workshop of top administrators and supervisors might be conducted under the guidance of staff members who have been to the United States, to identify problems, to clarify goals, and to evaluate the methods which have been used to achieve those goals.

4. Workshops should be conducted by the supervisors with principals and teachers so that the latter may be initiated into the democratic processes which they in turn will use with pupils and with people of the community in determining more specific school goals that respond to the needs of the smaller community.

5. As harmonious relationships are established between schoolmen and laymen, such problems as evaluating customs and traditions will be discussed openly until agreement is reached as to which should be preserved or revised. An uncoerced common persuasion will be striven for.

6. Since supervisory practices and the attitudes of the members of the teaching staff are influenced by the supervisory program, a plan for a new supervisory program is proposed. The line system of school management will be done away with. Instead, service boards at dif-

ferent levels will be organized, which will cooperate with the administrators in making decisions and formulating policies. These boards will be composed of representatives from among the pupils, parents, and other lay groups concerned and of teachers, principals, and supervisors. Through the service boards, different groups connected with the school system will cooperate with one another and with the administrators.

As participation in group processes is extended farther and farther to include even pupils and laymen, democracy as a way of living and doing things will be appreciated, and the democratic principles of respect for the human personality and reliance on human intelligence to resolve social, educational, and other problems will be put into practice.

Understanding the meaning and application of democracy in education will change the attitudes of status leaders toward teachers. No longer will supervisors assume that they know the teachers' problems and possess the key to their solutions. Cooperative studies will be conducted to determine teachers' needs, and the teachers will decide what supervisory techniques are most helpful to them. Supervisors and teachers will work together in democratic cooperation to improve the total teaching-learning situation and to make the educational climate conducive to the happiness and success of all concerned.

Further Studies Recommended

More studies have to be made if the planners of education in the Philippines are to be provided with even the most essential data upon which planning will be based. The following are only a few of those needed studies:

1. A study to determine what traditions still govern the peoples' conduct and to evaluate them in the light of democratic principles generally accepted by the Filipinos.

2. A survey to determine the attitude of the Mohammedan Filipinos toward the present government and to propose a program of education that will tend to develop national consciousness in them within their own cultural background.

3. A study to determine the extent to which the character education program improves the pupils' behavior at home, at school, on the playground, and in other places.

303. PINERO, Flora Nave (Ed. D.). "Democratic Educational Administration for the Philippine Educational System." Indiana University, 1952. 392 pp. Source: Indiana University, School of Education, STUDIES IN EDUCATION (Thesis Abstract Series, 1952), pp. 257-261.

The Problem

The Philippines have committed themselves to the democratic form of government as expressed in the Constitution of the Philippines. Their social institutions are patterned after those of democratic countries and yet the line of authority emanates from top to bottom with rarely any participation from the bottom which is at once a violation of the principle of democracy that those who are concerned in a democratic activity should have a voice in the planning.

If the schools are to share in the rehabilitation of the country's war-shattered economic, social, and cultural life, democratic processes will have to be introduced in the public school system. The urgency of the hour, then, is a formulation of principles of democratic administration by which to guide the effectual program of reorganization for the democratization of the educational system.

This study has three fundamental purposes:

1. An analysis of the organization and administration of the Philippine educational system.

2. A critical review of related literature, with the aim of establishing and reformulating certain basic principles which may be used by those administering the public school system in the Islands.

3. A recommendation of a new design for a democratic administration of the Philippine public schools.

Procedure

The many principles and processes of democratic educational administration were investigated in the related research and literature. No previous research has been discovered that endeavors to democratize centralized school systems by the application of some of the best democratic principles and techniques utilized in decentralized systems.

The data have been collected from various writers on educational administration, educational theory, and political science. Other sources have been the reports of Philippine school surveys, school reports, circulars, memoranda, other data from the Bureau of Public Schools, and the school laws of the Islands. The method used has been basically that of analysis, synthesis, and reasoning based on the sources examined. The study of the educational system in the Philippines has been limited to the public-supported schools administered by the Bureau of Public Schools.

Findings

The most distinctive element of the Philippine public school system is its total centralization of control and administration. The direct line of authority proceeds from the Director of Public Schools, who is responsible to the Secretary of Education, down to the teachers through the superintendents, supervisors, and principals. Vast powers are placed in the hands of the Director, which he exercises at his discretion. Subject to the approval of the Director, the curriculum, courses of study, study guides, etc., are prepared in the General Office, to be distributed to the field force in all parts of the country. The teachers have no share in formulating the curricula which are prepared by the curriculum "experts." The teachers' part is merely to use and follow what is sent out to them.

The field force of superintendents, supervisors, and principals, while holding administrative positions, actually have very little discretionary power. Their functions are not so much the formation of policy as the administration of routine matters and the determination of the extent to which circulars and memoranda are carried out in the field.

Because of the requirement of standardization and uniformity, most of the school situations are teacher-dictated or teacher-dominated. Provisions for practice in democratic living, cooperation, sharing, and participation in the learning process are absent. In the primary grades, classrooms are overcrowded and half-day sessions are necessary. The intermediate grades are abbreviated to two years beyond the primary grades. The trend in the secondary schools is away from the purely academic curriculum, with the inclusion of vocational subjects in the general curriculum. Higher education under the Bureau of Public Schools provides for the training of teachers. Admission to these schools is rigid and purposely highly discriminative, purportedly to select only the best candidates for the teaching profession. Whatever the reasons and purposes, they are circumvented, for the students rejected and denied admission go to the private schools for training and later are accepted as teachers on the same footing with the government-trained teachers. Thus, in compliance with the constitutional proviso of establishing and maintaining a complete system of public education, the government, through the Bureau of Public Schools, operates elementary, secondary, and collegiate schools. The high degree of control is apparent at the different levels of instruction. Regulations cover admission, enrollment, curriculum, promotions, pupil activities, and discipline.

The support of public education is chiefly the financial burden of the national government. Exceptions are the city intermediate schools and the secondary schools, which are primarily the responsibilities of the chartered cities and the provincial governments, respectively. Elementary education is free. Secondary education, however, is supported almost entirely by student tuition. Funds for the repair and construction of the national schools are derived from the Public Works fund distributed at the discretion of the President. Acquisition of school sites is the responsibility of the locality of the school, subject to the Bureau's regulations.

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There is need for a more democratic administration of the educational system. The principles formulated to be used as guides to a democratic administration of the schools are:

1. The Democratic Principles. Democratic administration operates unequivocally in theory and practice in complete harmony with the democratic ideals.

2. The Principle of Equal Opportunity. Democratic administration provides for and guarantees an equal opportunity to grow to one's full potentialities.

3. The Principle of Adaptability. Democratic administration is keenly aware of and responsive to the needs of an evolving society.

4. The Principle of Authority and Responsibility. Democratic administration recognizes the implicit complementary coexistence of authority and responsibility necessary for the attainment of common ends.

5. The Principle of Effectiveness. Democratic administration utilizes the values, practices, and resources available to facilitate the teaching and learning processes effectively.

Evaluated in the light of the principles formulated, the Philippine public schools fall short in many instances. At the present, it appears that equalization of opportunity is taken to mean uniform education for all the children in school. The same curriculum is offered to Christian and non-Christian pupils; the same textbooks are used throughout the archipelago; the same amount of money is spent on each pupil, whether in the city or in the barrio school. Judged by the principle of adaptability, the educational system is also found wanting. The individual schools do not have any freedom in deciding what educational program to provide for the children of their communities. Textbooks are selected by the Board on Textbooks of the Department of Education; the curriculum is written out by the General Office; the methods of instruction are prescribed by the Bureau under the surveillance of the Instruction Division.

In democratic education effectiveness demands the use of democratic procedures that guarantee participation, cooperative group planning, and intelligent freedom to experiment on the most acceptable methods for realizing the purposes of Philippine education. Policies, both general and specific, are formulated and enforced by the central office. Responsibility is clearly assigned to the various divisions and levels of schools. The performance or failure of accomplishment of an undertaking can be quickly traced to the person or entity responsible for it. This systematic allocation of responsibility is a strong point in the administration of the schools. Its weakness, which seriously impedes democratic and effective administration, is the extremely scant amount of discretionary authority delegated in proportion to the responsibility assigned.

Recommendations

Since there is need for greater democracy, if the system is approved in terms of the principles it is possible to show clearly where the lines of action should lie. The new design recommended for consideration has three parts. The first deals with the decentralization of control and operation, the second with the organization and scope of education, and the third with the support of education.

In order to administer the schools democratically, popular and professional control in education should be increased. Agencies for participation and channels of communication should be provided. Therefore, for the decentralization of control and organization, it is recommended that:

1. The highly centralized system should be decentralized.
2. The Bureau of Public Schools should provide leadership for the entire educational system. It should relinquish the actual details of the operation of the schools to the school divisions. It should provide competent consultative and advisory services to strengthen local administration and to improve instruction and the educational program.
3. Authority and responsibility to operate the schools on matters of established policies within the division

should be delegated to the superintendent. The superintendent administers the schools, coordinates the educational program, and executes the policies of the national government and of the local boards.

4. The individual schools should be made semi-autonomous units. The division superintendent should delegate authority and responsibility within established policies to the principal for the operation of the school he administers.

5. The local boards of education should be revived and granted legislative powers. The board is the educational policy-making body of the local community. The superintendent consults with the board regarding the finances needed by the schools.

6. Participation in policy-making should be provided for in the organizational structure of the division for both the teachers and the laymen through teachers' committees, the superintendent's council, or citizens' committees.

7. National authorities should exert a minimum of prudential controls with regard to standards of accounting for public money, health and safety, provision for buildings and equipment, and protection of the welfare of the personnel and pupils.

8. The rules and regulations of the Bureau of Public Schools should be studied and evaluated critically to relax or remove structures contrary to democratic principles.

9. Controls exercised by both the national and the local administration should not violate the personality and integrity of an individual.

10. Participation by teachers at the national level should be provided for in the structure of the administration.

Education that is offered at the expense of the public must be adequate and effective. To guarantee a democratic and effective education, the organization and scope of education should be revised. It is recommended that:

1. The half-day sessions should be eliminated and whole-day classes for primary grades should be restored as soon as possible.

2. Two-year junior high schools, to include grades 7 and 8, should be established as part of the common school education as soon as funds permit or where feasible.

3. The vocational courses of the general curriculum should be made functional and practical.

4. The Bureau of Public Schools should provide leadership and advice in curriculum development. The local schools should develop and determine the content of the curriculum, drawing on the resources of the community to adapt the educational program to the community and to the individual needs of the pupils.

5. The number of teacher training schools should be increased to meet the demand for better qualified teachers. The number of enrollees in the normal schools and teachers' colleges should also be increased.

6. The quality of teachers should be improved through a vigorous in-service educational program and through study on Saturdays and during vacations and off-hours.

7. The schools should be made into community schools. Resources of the community should be utilized by the school. The needs, interests, and problems of the community should shape the educative activities. The schools should improve the social and economic living of the citizens of the community.

Equal educational opportunity should be extended to all the children of school age and not to one group of children only. In order, therefore, to secure a greater equality of opportunity for the children, the support of education should be more adequate. It is recommended that:

1. The boards of education should assume the support of a complete system of elementary and secondary education in the community. The boards must be vested with powers to raise the money for school purposes.

2. The national government should define and support the minimum or foundation program for the complete system of elementary and secondary education.
3. The local communities should be provided financial leeway for adaptations.
4. The provincial goverments should provide the funds for adaptations to communities which can only meet the minimum requirements of the national government.
5. The provincial governments, where feasible, should establish a teacher training institution in the province, or help support a regional teacher training school for its teachers. The national government should contribute to the support of the teacher training school.
6. A fair and adequate single-salary schedule should be established. It should be adequate to attract young people to the profession and to hold those already in service.

It will not be possible to put into operation at once all parts of the recommended program to democratize Philippine education. This will involve long-range planning. The path of a democratic administration of schools is long, and many a weary step will be trod before any tangible results can be claimed. But this is the only way if the Philippine schools are to contribute to a great degree to the democratic way of living.

304. POLICARPIO-MENDEZ, Paz (Ed. D.). "Family Relations: A Test for Filipino High School and College Youth." Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951. Source: Eells, p. 123; and TCCU DIGESTS (1951), 521-523.

Digest

The aim of this book is to help Filipino adolescent boys and girls understand themselves, and through such understanding be able to get along better with themselves, with their families, with their friends, and eventually with their spouses.

The approach used may be termed as functional, dynamic, inter-personal, psycho-cultural and multi-disciplinary. To put it in another way, the subject matter of the book is the persistent life situations that a typical Filipino student of senior high school age is bound to face and is indeed facing. In endeavoring to show him how he can face his problems squarely and solve them satisfactorily, the writer has cut across subject-matter lines, by making use of such disciplines as psychology, anthropology, sociology, physiology, philosophy, religion, history and law.

The style used in writing is the easy, informal type rather than the rigid academic style of other books. Illustrations from common daily life situations are meant to give concreteness to abstract ideas and principles.

The book is divided into eight parts, related to one another in an orderly sequence. Part I, Understanding Yourself, and Part II, Building Your Personality, aim at helping the student understand himself, and at analyzing the causes of human behavior. Enough of the anthropological, biological and psychological aspects of behavior are dealt with to enable the student to understand why he behaves the way he does. Part I ends with a discussion of certain characteristics of Filipino culture as evolved from the inter-mixture of Malayan, Indonesian, Hindu, Chinese, Spanish and American cultures.

Part II, Building Your Personality, traces the formation of personality and its adjustment and use of defense mechanisms. The aesthetic aspects of personality, like grooming, posture, voice and manners, are briefly dealt with to help the young Filipino acquire poise and self-confidence. A chapter, Solving Your Problems, gives the various steps of how young people may face and solve their problems scientifically.

From Part III, Living With Your Family, the student is ushered to the bigger social group from which he or she eventually must choose a mate. The biological basis of the family and its cultural evolution and differentiation is given to enable the student to see himself in relation to society in general.

Part V, Looking Forward to Marriage, answers such questions as Why do people marry? Who is the right person for you? and Why courtship and engagement?

Part VI, What Makes a Successful Marriage, discusses attitudes, values, and personal and cultural expectations and problems that are commonly met during the married state. The ultimate goal is a happy and successful marriage within the pattern of Filipino tradition and culture. A chapter, The Law Looks at the Family, describes legal provisions that affect marriage and the family.

Part VII, If You Do Not Marry, is meant to take care of the special needs and problems of those who stay single, either by preference or due to circumstances.

A final chapter, Towards Maturity, rounds up the important ideas in the book and ends with a challenge to the Filipino youth to grow into emotional, social, and intellectual maturity to be able to play their roles in the unending drama of family and society.

305. PONCE, Lucylen Beronilla (Ph. D.). "Household and Farm Work Situation of Rural Homemakers in Leyte, Philippines, and Implications for Family Resource Management." Ohio State University, 1981. 152 pp. Source: DAI, XLII, 5B (November, 1981), 1840-B. XUM Order No. 8121846.

The relationships between 11 demographic and situational variables and the level of planning in food shopping was examined among rural homemakers in eastern and western Leyte, Philippines. In addition, a profile of the rural homemakers in eastern and western Leyte was constructed and similarities and differences were identified in their characteristics for the 11 demographic and situational variables, including their food shopping practices, level of planning in food shopping, and farm participation.

Two hundred principal homemakers of Samahang Nayon households were drawn through multi-stage random sampling to provide equal-sized subsamples from eastern and western Leyte. Data were collected with a pretested instrument used in personal interviews. Hypotheses were tested by means of chi square tests, multivariate analysis of variance, and analysis of covariance.

Significant differences were revealed ($p \leq .05$) between eastern and western respondents in six of the 11 predictor variables--occupational level, household facilities, participation in extension class, education, household size, and annual per capita income. Per capita income and food shopping time had clear-cut relationships with planning for food shopping. Per capita income was positively related to planning, while food shopping time was negatively associated with it. Planning for food shopping was highest among participants engaged in skilled labor; followed by those:

1. not engaged in gainful work.
2. in private enterprise.
3. in unskilled labor.

Significant interactions were found between numeric and categorical predictor variables. These relationships were:

1. Education was positively related to planning if household facilities owned were traditional but negatively associated with it if household facilities owned were semi-modern.

2. Distance to food market was positively related to planning among nonmembers of extension classes but negatively associated with it among extension class members.

3. Farm participation was positively related to planning among eastern respondents but negatively associated with it among western respondents.

4. Homemaking help received was positively related to

planning among nonmembers of extension classes regardless of the type of household facilities owned and among members with semi-modern household facilities but negatively associated with it among extension class members with traditional household facilities.

306. PORRATA, Oscar Emilio (Ed. D.). "A Suggested Policy for the Administration and Control of Public Education in Puerto Rico." Pennsylvania State College, 1947. 258 pp. Source: Eells, p. 54; and Published, Rio Piedras, P.R.: Bureau of Publications, Puerto Rico Teachers Association, 1949, pp. iv-vii.

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307. PORTUGAL, Ramon Camaclan (Ph. D.). "Background and Development of Philippine Administrative Law." Syracuse University, 1958. 453 pp. Source: DAI, XX, 2 (August, 1959), 731. XUM Order No. Mic 59-1204.

Statement of the Problem

Philippine political history shows that as a result of the American regime in the country (1898-1935), American concepts and institutions in government and public administration have been transplanted into Philippine soil. The setting, however, is not quite the same because of a different kind of Philippine society, characterized, among other things, by a paternal type of government.

The Philippines has run with the current of the development of the service state, producing its administrative law patterned after the American prototype. In the light of the current thinking and emerging trends in the field, the dominant features and possible shortcomings of Philippine administrative law are considered in this paper.

Procedure of Study

The study is divided into the three major parts of administrative law, namely:

1. Problems arising out of the position of administrative agencies in the constitutional system of government.

2. Procedures governing the agencies in the transaction of business.

3. Judicial review of administrative action.

That more and more attention is being focused lately on the procedural aspect of the law is given proper recognition. Also, because of its bearing on individual rights, the topic of state immunity and official liability is included in the discussion.

Ramon Camaclan Portugal

Philippine laws, adjudicated cases, and other materials are availed of to picture the present state of the law. References to the writings of commentators and reports of bodies informed on problems in administrative law are included to present points of view aimed at improving the administrative process....

393. PRIEST, Bill Jason (Ed D.). "Philippine Education in Transition, 1941-1946." University of California, Berkeley, 1947. 287 pp. Source: Eells, p. 123; and Dissertation Abstract.

The objectives of this study were:

1. To trace the development of Philippine public education during the period of Japanese occupation.
2. To discern the views of Filipino educators toward the educational offering of this period.
3. To analyze postwar educational problems of the Philippines.

The study was based chiefly on primary sources obtained in the Philippines during 1945. Among the most informative data were the official correspondence of ranking educators, The Official Journal of the Japanese Military Administration, the Official Gazette, Annual Reports of the Commissioner of Education and of the Director of Public Instruction, and wartime radio intercepts by the Office of Strategic Services. A questionnaire distributed through official channels of the Bureau of Education supplied additional data.

Japan's stated objectives for Philippine education were:

1. Indoctrination of the Filipinos as members of the East-Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere.
2. Promotion of amicable Filipino-Japanese relations.

3. Eradication of Filipino-American ties.

4. De-emphasis on materialism.

5. Promotion of vocational education.

6. Popularization of labor. However, the Japanese concentrated their attention on increased productivity and the diffusion of Japanese ideology.

During the Executive Commission Period an inferior educational offering was provided on a very small scale because of the lack of funds and the pre-occupation of the Japanese with more pressing problems.

The so-called independence which was granted to the Philippines by the Japanese in 1943 was superficial, for the Japanese retained control over the Filipino people and continued their exploitation without interruption. Despite the impotency of the Philippine Republic, a new nationalism arose which wielded a significant influence on public education. The curriculum continued to be dominantly vocational. Food shortages in 1944 resulted in a government-sponsored food production campaign in which public schools were assigned a major role.

Public education reached its wartime peak during the summer of 1944. From October, 1944, to March, 1945, military conditions brought education to a standstill. Japanese mismanagement, Filipino loyalty to the United States, and inadequate time to impart Japanese ideology resulted in the failure of the Japanese to achieve their objectives for public education.

A questionnaire answered by 608 educators active during the Japanese occupation indicates that in their opinion:

1. Teachers and pupils alike were hostile toward Japanese-sponsored education.

2. Japanese occupation appreciably retarded Philippine education.

3. Japan's cultural invasion of the Philippines was a dismal failure.

Bill Jason Priest

During the post-liberation period schools were reopened as soon as military security permitted. Despite wartime destruction, enthusiasm for education ran high. Postwar education was severely handicapped by inadequate finances, monetary inflation, school plant destruction; equipment, supply and textbook shortages; an acute teacher shortage, and student retardation and "overageness." Postwar education was dominated by a new utilitarian philosophy which placed emphasis on training for work.

309. PRUDENCIADO, Sofia Lozano (Ed. D.). "A Proposed Audio-Visual Program for the Philippine Normal College." Indiana University, 1955. 380 pp. Source: DAI, XV, 9 (1955), 1563-1564. XUM Order No. 13,225.

The Problem

It was the main purpose of this study to recommend a feasible and promising audiovisual program for the Philippine Normal College, based upon the audiovisual resources and needs of the College. The subproblems were:

1. To ascertain the characteristics of a desirable audio-visual program in the light of available literature and research.

2. To analyze the factors that influence the audiovisual program of the Philippine Normal College.

3. To appraise the status of audiovisual resources available to the Philippine Normal College.

4. To recommend certain considerations for the improvement of the present audiovisual program.

Procedure and Sources of Data

The method used in this study was basically that of analysis, synthesis, and reasoning based on the resources examined. First, literature and research in the field of audiovisual education were studied to ascertain the characteristics of a desirable audiovisual program. Secondly, factors influencing the audiovisual program of the Philippine Normal College, based on answers to questionnaires and annual reports of the president of the college, were analyzed. Thirdly, the information and statistics describing the status of the audiovisual resources available to the institution were appraised. Lastly, a feasible program was recommended.

Conclusions

On the basis of the findings, the following conclusions were formulated concerning an audiovisual program for the Philippine Normal College:

1. Although some students and instructors in the College are aware of audiovisual education, many do not recognize its contribution to the educational process.

2. The administrative position of the Audio-Visual Department in the over-all College administrative organization is satisfactory.

3. There is need for an audiovisual center with adequate budget, facilities, equipment, materials, and personnel.

4. The teacher education program in audiovisual education on the undergraduate level needs expanding and that on the graduate level needs developing.

Recommendations

Recommendations which seem to be justified on the basis of the data are:

1. The Philippine Normal College should have a well organized and centrally located audiovisual department performing the functions of a college audiovisual center.

2. To accomplish the foregoing recommendation, the Philippine Normal College should maintain a library of audiovisual materials to serve all educational levels and areas, should set up a definite and adequate audiovisual budget, and should have an audiovisual staff

adequate to meet the instructional and service needs of the institution.

3. A program should be undertaken to publicize the values and benefits derived from the use of audiovisual materials.

4. A program of preservice experiences in utilization, selection, evaluation, and preparation of audiovisual materials for instructional purposes should be developed.

5. An in-service program should be developed and expanded to include not only teachers in the field but also the College's own instructors.

6. Continuing evaluation of the effectiveness of the audiovisual program and research should be encouraged and fostered.

310. PULIDO, Flor Tandoc (Ed. D.). "A Study of Teacher-Student Relationships: Attitudes of Teachers in the First and Second Year High School, Manila, Philippines." University of California, Berkeley, 1960. Source: Cordasco and Covello, p. 23; and Abstract from UC, Berkeley, Library.

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between teachers' attitudes and students' appraisal of their teachers. Also, were there other evidences on teacher-student relationships from related areas: classroom problems, the ways teachers solved these problems, teacher traits liked and disliked by students.

Sources of data were responses of selected teachers and students in Manila public high schools to the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory and free response questions. The significance of the difference between means was used to compare the samples and to determine the influence of certain personal factors.

The most important result was the evidence of the pressing need for redirecting teachers' attitudes in order to improve teacher-student relationships. Major findings were:

1. Teachers rated their attitudes significantly higher than students appraised teachers' attitudes.

2. The personal categories were found to bear only a few statistically significant relationships to teachers' attitudes.

3. The difference in means between the samples was significantly higher than the difference in means for various personal categories within each sample.

4. The population means of teachers and students, like the sample means, express the negative tendency.

Specific findings from teachers were:

1. Enjoyment of teaching and certain age groups bear close relationships to teachers' attitudes.

2. Teachers' continued education and experience were not statistically significant.

3. Sex, marital status, fields of study, and year taught in high school showed little or no relationships to teachers' attitudes.

4. Classroom problems and the ways for solving these problems showed relationships to teachers' attitudes.

Specific findings from students were:

1. Sex bears a close relationship to students' appraisal of teachers.

2. Certain subjects, especially when taught by teachers preferred, were significant.

3. Age and enjoyment of school bear little or no relationships to students' rating of teachers.

4. Consensus was found in respect to teacher traits liked and disliked by students.

The following recommendations on teacher preparation, classroom factors, and further research were made:

1. Teacher preparation should include a balanced emphasis on academic concerns and affective values; understanding the psychological nature and needs of adolescents; emphasis on the teachers' leadership role; and knowledge of the social goals of education, psychological foundations of human behavior, fundamental rights and values of individuals and psychology of learning.
2. Classroom factors should include understanding the purposes of discipline; presenting worthwhile values through various school subjects; knowing the causes for dropping out and ways of increasing school holding power; utilizing various school activities to teach better human relations; and improving the emotional climate in the classroom.
3. Research should lead to locally standardized attitude tests and rating scales; teachers' examinations involving attitudes; effective counseling and guidance; and more basic data on various factors pertinent to teacher-student relationships.

311. PULIDO, Josefina A. (Ed. D.). "A Proposed Program for the Preparation of Elementary School Teachers for the Rural Areas in the Philippines." Indiana University, 1969. 228 pp. Source: DAI, XXX, 4A (October, 1969), 1457-A-1458-A. XUM Order No. 69-15,655.

The study represents an effort to contribute to the thinking--urged of every Filipino citizen during these difficult times as the country struggles for stability--toward overcoming the confounding barriers that stand in the way of a much needed socio-economic development.

Josefina A. Pulido

It was the purpose of the study to delineate the role of teacher education if schools were to coordinate their efforts with national programs aimed at accelerating the country's pace of development and to project a program for teacher preparation that is consistent with this role.

The procedure used in the study consisted of:

1. A survey of general literature on rural education, teacher education, and innovations in the area of teacher preparation. The survey furnished perspectives from which were viewed the problems of Philippine rural education and for assessing the efforts that have been and are being made to improve rural education in the country.

2. The gathering of information and data on the "typical" Philippine barrio, the Filipino college student, the Philippine Community School, and teacher preparation in the Philippines. This step aimed to satisfy a fundamental principle of educational programming: educational programming requires an operational insight into the nature of the setting in which the program is to function, the society it serves, and the learners who are to profit directly from its instruction.

3. Determining, on the basis of the data gathered under steps 1 and 2, the general directions which educational intervention could take through the instrumentality of teacher education and the implications of these for teacher preparation. This step sought to relate teacher education with the society it seeks to serve.

4. Delineating a set of guidelines for developing a program of teacher preparation on the basis of the information gathered under steps 1, 2 and 3, and of the known principles in the mechanics of educational programming. This set of guidelines was intended to serve as an instrument to help direct and control decisionmaking in the framing of a program within the given context.

5. Framing the program.

Printed literature was the main source of data for the study. The pooled judgment of a panel was sought to help determine the directions of educational intervention and the implications of these for teacher preparation.

The resulting proposed program is development-oriented. It sets as a priority helping implement the country's socio-economic programs. It has as its focus the process of change. The curriculum not only provides courses for the study of the process of change; it provides for practical experiences that will necessitate the flow of scientific, up-to-date, immediately useful knowledge which itself is change-inducing. The program requires the involvement of students in many short-ranged goal-directed activities that will permit them to try out and observe results of change-inducing procedures.

The proposed program is rural-oriented. It aims to operate in the areas in the country most needing development--the rural areas, especially the more remote ones. Its participants are largely from these areas and are being prepared to teach therein. The intended point of departure in the professional preparation of the teacher is an intensive study of the rural educational setting. Actual conditions and problems of the immediate community become the tools for demonstrating the meaning of gearing educational tasks to the needs of the community.

The basic structure of the program is independent of the conventional college framework: prescribed time requirements, semester course structure, and traditional grading systems and procedures. It is intended to be a year-round school program.

Pervading the whole program is the effort to exemplify certain basic qualities of educational leadership--self-help, reliance on democratic processes, and service.

312. PUTONG, Cecilio (Ph. D.). "Specific Objectives and Contents of Vocational Education in Agriculture in the Philippine Islands Rice Culture." University of Chicago, 1937. 177 pp. Source: Eells, p. 123; and

Cecilio Putong

Dissertation, pp. 134-138.

GENERAL SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This investigation was undertaken for the purpose of determining to what extent scientific publications can be used as a basis for curriculum construction in agricultural subjects. Since the main contribution of this study was intended to be the development of a technique which might be employed in curriculum construction in agriculture when using scientific publications as sources of materials, it was thought best to limit the study to the growing and marketing of rice. It was thought that once the technique should be developed, its application to the other crops would be a relatively simple matter.

The basic philosophy underlying the whole investigation is that the objectives and content of the curriculum in any area of occupational activity should be the best obtainable in the present stage of scientific development attained in that area. Not what the people engaged in the vocation are actually doing now, but what science says these people ought to do, should be the principal criterion in the selection of curriculum material. Consequently, a bibliography of 153 titles, all dealing with one or more aspects of rice culture and marketing, was collected. Of this number, ninety-eight were selected by at least three thoroughly competent judges as appropriate for the purpose of this study.

As a first step, every one of the ninety-eight publications was canvassed for activities and related knowledge. Identical statements found in the different publications were combined into one statement, with the result that in the end a list of activities was obtained, marked by certain conventional signs to indicate:

1. That the recommended activity was the result of scientific experimentation.

2. That the activity was recommended unanimously by the specialists.

3. That although disagreement existed among the specialists regarding the activity, a preponderant number of them recommended it.

4. That expert opinion was equally divided on the question of the soundness of the recommendation. This list, together with the related knowledge, is given in Table 8.

The next step was to submit the list of activities to field agronomists and experiment station superintendents of the Bureau of Plant Industry for evaluation on the basis of practicality, it being thought that recommendations, in order to have curricular value in the field of agriculture, must be practical under actual farm conditions. What would it profit a farmer to run his farm on a strictly scientific basis if, as a result, he should suffer financial loss and possibly face bankruptcy? There is no doubt, for instance, that an immaculately clean farm is an ideal to strive for, but it is equally certain that in this matter of cleanliness a point is eventually reached beyond which the law of diminishing returns begins to operate, so that any additional amount spent in weeding would be accompanied by a proportionately smaller profit and finally even by actual loss. The data bearing on this evaluation by the field agronomists and experiment station superintendents are presented in Table 9.

Finally, the activities as evaluated by the Bureau of Plant Industry field men were submitted to teachers of agricultural subjects in our agricultural and rural high schools in different sections of the country, for evaluation on the basis of general practice. It was desired to find out whether the recommended practices were now being actually followed by our farmers, and in cases where the recommended activities were not being practiced, to learn the reasons for the farmers' failure to follow the recommendations. The data bearing on this evaluation are presented in Tables 13 to 16.

The data gathered in this investigation appear to justify the assumption stated at the beginning of Chapter IV, that specialists in agricultural science are competent to recommend what our farmers ought to do in order to attain maximum efficiency in their work. It was pointed out in Chapter VIII that practically all the activities recommended by the specialists--96.3 per cent, to be more exact--were pronounced practical by the field agronomists who evaluated them. Even in the case of the remaining 3.7 per cent considered impractical, not one activity was so considered unanimously by the judges. Add to this the further fact revealed in Table 13 that no activity has been reported by a large number of teachers of agriculture as unprofitable from the business standpoint, and one is almost driven to the conclusion that on the whole the pronouncements of agricultural specialists can be relied upon as sound.

If these interpretations of the data be sound, it would seem that there is every justification for teaching the activities and related knowledge gathered in this investigation to the students who expect to engage in rice farming. Considerations of economy of time and effort, however, demand that the weak points in the vocation be discovered in order that emphasis may be placed where it is needed. In certain cases education may be said to have a residual function; that is, the school should take care particularly of those essential activities which the students have not learned through actual experiences as they assist in the work of the farm before attending the agricultural school. Taking the cue from the field of general education, the educator knows that by the time a child is ready to enter school he has already learned to walk; therefore no provision is made in the elementary curriculum for the training of children in the art of walking. Instead, the school concentrates its attention and its energies on those crucial activities which are either not done at all or are done poorly, such as drinking safe water, eating green leafy vegetables, and the like. In the same way it would probably be safe to assume that, although the activities which have been found to be already in common practice by our farmers should be taught, it will be sufficient merely to touch upon them lightly. To this group of activities belong the pulling up of the seedlings in transplanting, or trimming them when they are of full age and well developed--the likelihood being that these are already known by the students. But in the case of those activities that are not as yet being practiced by our farmers, it will be necessary to put considerable effort into teaching the students so that they will come to master them. Examples of such activities are testing the seed for vitality, applying fertilizers when necessary, and using the dapog method of preparing the seed bed when occasion demands.

A word of caution might be said here. The data given in these tables are determined by the mode, which is a measure of central tendency. It goes without saying that there are variations in practice from one locality to another. One field agronomist, referring to methods of preparing the seed bed, wrote:

> The system of preparing seed bed is best determined by local conditions. The punlaan method is used where there is an abundant supply of irrigation water before the transplanting season... The dapog method is used when the seedlings previously prepared were damaged or when for some reason or other there is very little time left for the growing of seedlings for transplanting.

It is clear, therefore, that while these tables will be of help to the teacher in a general way, he needs to study closely the practices of the locality and then bring the knowledge thus acquired to bear upon his teaching.

The following conclusions appear to be justified by the data gathered in this study:

1. The activities recommended by writers on rice culture and rice marketing are still on the level of hypothesis. On the whole they are the unvalidated opinions of specialists. They are useful, however, as a working basis until more valid procedures are discovered.

2. Specialists are quite generally agreed on the desirability of most of the activities involved in efficient rice growing and marketing. Where a given activity was not unanimously recommended by the specialists, there was usually a preponderance of opinion in favor of one or the other activity. Opinion was evenly divided in the case of one activity.

3. The activities recommended by the specialists whose writings were used in this study were, on the whole, considered practical by the thirteen men of the Bureau of Plant Industry who were requested to evaluate them. Eleven activities were pronounced impractical by a majority of the judges.

4. The average Filipino farmer is already practicing those activities which are needed in growing a rice crop with marginal efficiency.

5. The activities that are not as yet being practiced by the average Filipino farmer, either because of ignorance or because of the influence of tradition, are those that may be called the refinements of rice culture--activities which require considerable knowledge of agricultural science for their successful performance. Among such activities are seed selection, seed testing, the use of fertilizers, the control of pests and diseases, crop rotation, crop diversification, farm accounting, and co-operative marketing.

6. Scientific publications contain the most up-to-date activities and principles which should be taught to our farmers in training, and which should therefore be included in a course in rice culture.

Next Steps

This study has limited itself to the development of a method of procedure in a curriculum investigation in which scientific publications are used as sources of materials. It has been found that such publications contain the recommendations of persons who are best qualified to speak on the subject of rice growing and marketing. Before the results of the present study can be of direct and actual benefit to education, however, it will be necessary to incorporate them into a course of study to be placed in the hands of the teachers. Anyone wishing to prepare such a course of study will find the activities very useful which are listed in Tables 13 to 16, together with the related knowledge given or indicated in Table 8. The related knowledge given in Table 8 will provide a basis for determining what items of subject matter should go into the theoretical part of the course, while the recommended activities will serve to indicate the nature of the practical work which the students ought to perform as part of their training. When the course of study is completed, it should be tried out experimentally in a number of selected agricultural and rural high schools in order to determine its effectiveness and to discover whatever defects and imperfections it may have, after which it should be revised and issued to all schools offering instruction in rice growing.

It would be well also to apply the technique herein described in the discovery of materials and in the development of courses of study to the other areas of agricultural activity--sugar cane, tobacco, corn, and coconuts--and later to the various minor crops commonly raised in this country. In this way the different agricultural and rural high schools will in time be provided with a curriculum in agriculture which has been worked out on a scientific basis.

Q

313. QADIR, Syed Abdul (Ph. D.). "Adoption of Technological Change in the Rural Philippines--An Analysis of Compositional Effects." Cornell University, 1966. 159 pp. Source: DAI, XXVII, 12A (June, 1967), 4356-A-4357-A. XUM Order No. 67-1402.

Recent research in the United States has pointed to the influence of the neighborhood on the individual farmer's tendency to adopt improved practices. The indications are that it is not sufficient to find individual-level attributes such as education, socio-economic status or occupation as predictors of individual's behavior; rather the nature of the group of which the individual is a member must also be considered.

The present study offers a theoretical framework based on the concept of differentiation to evaluate the locality-group and individual effect on the adoption of technological change. Following a recent formulation by Young, differentiation has been defined to be the publicly discriminated meaning areas. The concept refers to the individual's or social system's capacity to process a diverse kind of cultural information. Improved practices in the area of health, sanitation and agricultural productivity are considered to represent new meaning areas and therefore the operational definition of differentiation, and a count of such practices constitutes the dependent variable of the study. Thirteen attributes such as education, media contact, etc., first measured at the individual level and then aggregated to show group (barrio)-level composition, comprise the independent variables.

Using survey data from 611 households in 26 Philippine barrios, the major analysis has been devoted to compositional effects, the theoretical and methodological rationale of which was advanced by James Davis. Through use of appropriate statistical techniques, an effort has been made to obtain a relatively exact and quantitative measure of the contribution of the individual-level attributes and the group-composition of similar attributes to the individual's adoption behavior.

The main hypothesis that barrios as locality groups differ with respect to differentiation was supported by data. Moreover, the level of differentiation was strongly associated with the nearness of a barrio to the city. Education, media contact, physical communication facilities including access to the city, modern orientation and level of living--whether measured on the level of the individual or group--showed highly significant correlations with individual-level adoption. As hypothesized, the highly differentiated barrios had high values with respect to these attributes. Individual's age, occupation, tendency status and place of birth appeared to have consequences for adoption to the extent that they hindered or facilitated acquiring and processing diverse information by the individual and the group. The attributes showed various types of compositional effects--from pure to insignificant group effect, but in no case was there observed a pure individual effect. In most cases, correlation of the individual-level attributes and adoption was explained, interpreted or specified by the barrio level of differentiation.

Taking level of barrio differentiation as representing temporal stages in adoption, this study has further analyzed the contribution of individual-level attributes in determining adoption behavior at various stages. The prevalent notion about the innovator as the "marginal man" or the normative structure of the group was found to receive clear explanation in terms of the present theoretical framework.

The findings of the study have practical implications for programs of directed change or community development. Such programs should take the community as social system and begin with an evaluation of the level of differentiation of the community. Once this is done, one may know with some precision where to emphasize agency contact, which individuals are likely to be innovators or influentials, and what should be the expected rate of diffusion in communities at different levels of differentiation. Creation of many urban points throughout the countryside rather than one or two primate cities is likely to quicken the process of modernization. Simultaneously, a normal program of education, geared to diversified and specialized knowledge, should be emphasized. Any program of modernization may gain by creating opportunities for physical mobility of the individual.

314. QUILA, Solomon Era (Th. D.). "The Impact of Nationalism Upon the Christian Culture of the Philippines (With Particular Reference to Contemporary Times)." Princeton Theological Seminary, 1963. 383 pp. Source: DAI, XXVIII, 9A (March, 1968), 3758-A-3759-A. XUM Order No. 63-8054.

This dissertation is a phenomenological study of the impact of nationalism in the peculiarly Christian-Democratic culture of the Philippines. The Filipino community is seen as a phenomenon, taking into consideration its particularities and generalities as a given community. It is an attempt of a Filipino to portray the role that nationalism has been playing in the religio-political culture of his own country and people, the impact that nationalism has had in the formation, development and the future of the kulturchristliche of the Philippines.

On the basis of his research, the writer has come to the following conclusions:

Firstly, Filipinos are not different from any other group of people. Like any other group of people, the need for unity as a group has already been in the state of their mind, in the act of their consciousness seeking the opportunity to express itself in their social, political, and religious endeavors. Although the pre-Spanish Filipinos were engaged in petty tribal conflicts, they nevertheless showed a sense of a strong chord of unity that transcended the divisive forces of language and geographical barriers.

The first surge of nationalism was sensed when the Filipinos felt that the relative freedom that they enjoyed under the rule of their tribal chieftains was being snatched away by the Spanish colonizers. The condition of involuntary servitude that was imposed by the Spaniards upon them hastened the birth and speeded the development of what might be termed as "protective" or "defensive" nationalism among the Filipino people. The oppression and tyranny that their "white masters" inflicted upon them made them realize more than ever before the value of freedom and justice. In short, like any other people, given the same condition, the Filipinos became aware of the common cultural heritage--customs, traditions, race and color--aspirations and destiny that they have. It was at this point in their history when the Filipinos became fully conscious of the existence of a Filipino race.

Secondly, the Filipinos have had sociological patterns of behaviour and structures that are peculiarly their own. Although almost four centuries of Spanish domination has Hispanized many of them, theirs remains a distinctly Filipino culture. Even the advent of American culture has failed to completely westernize the Filipinos. To be sure, the Philippines, with the possible exception of Japan, can be considered the most westernized country in Asia but, to reiterate, nationalism has been a strong factor in the preservation of Filipino cultural heritage. Nationalism has been, in a very large measure, responsible for the preservation of the old Filipino customs and traditions. Today, every Filipino is proud of their national flag which to them is the symbol of their national heritage, aspirations and destiny.

Thirdly, nationalism has played a major role in the struggle of the Filipino people for political independence. The struggle has its uniqueness in that it has resulted in an unusual alliance between a Christian (particularly Catholic) and democratic religio-political structures. The close interpenetration of these two structures has, in turn, created a tension, one seemingly serving as an antithesis of the other. This unique religious political culture forms the kulturchristliche in the Philippines. Nationalism has played a significant role in the formation, development and the future of the Philippine kulturchristliche.

1. In its formation. Catholicism was the first branch of Christianity to be introduced to the Filipinos. In spite of the coercive measures that the friars used in the "conversion" of the natives to Catholicism, it can nevertheless be said that the acceptance by the Filipinos of the new faith was real. It can also be said that the acceptance of the new faith gave the Filipinos a sense of religious unity.

   The union of Church and State which was practiced by the Spanish colonizers led to oppression and tyranny, and this, more than any other, has been largely responsible for the awakening of Philippine nationalism. The Revolution of 1896 which was the climax of the Filipinos' bloody expression of nationalism was primarily due to the curtailment of religious liberty by the representatives of the Roman Church.

2. In its development. The national consciousness that the Spanish imperialistic colonial policy awakened in the hearts and minds of the Filipinos was at its height when the Americans came, and their benevolent colonial policy caused a watering down of Filipino nationalism. At this juncture of their national history, nationalism once again played a significant role in shaping its future as a nation and as a race. Instead of being

lured into the protective wings of the American eagle by being a part of the Union, the nationalist Filipinos chose the unchartered sea of independence. Thus, in a sense, the existence of the free and independent contemporary Philippines which has been called the "showpiece of democracy in the Far East," is due to the impact of nationalism.

Religiously, this is a story of the absorption of primitive religious practices into Catholicism. The congeniality of Catholicism to the primitive religion of the early Filipinos resulted in a rather unstable religious unity, but at the same time produced an anti-clerical movement as a result of Catholicism's identification with the worst colonial government in her national history.

The introduction of Protestantism and Democracy by the Americans occasioned a tension in the Philippine kulturchristliche:

1. Between Protestantism and Catholicism.
2. Between Protestantism and primitivism.
3. Between Catholicism and Democracy.

The nationalism that has grown in full bloom during the last century of Spanish occupation and which had its watershed during the American regime once again glowed in heat in recent times. The increase in membership and growth of influence of the minority groups has alarmed the Roman Catholic hierarchy in the Philippines which caused its resurgent militant aggressiveness. Its aggressiveness has been expressed in religious practices which show the tendency towards religious intolerance and bigotry. This intolerant attitude is incongenial with the spirit of democracy; hence it is here where the conflict within the kulturchristliche arises.

3. In the future. As long as the Roman Church in the Philippines continues to show its desire to "co-exist" with Philippine democracy and to tolerate the existence of the religious minority groups, there will be

peace, security and prosperity in the country's future. Nationalism will continually effect a strength which is based on its own people's resource. Leadership in both the political, social, educational, economic and religious field will continue to be transferred to the nationals until such time that all the aspects of Philippine life will truly be in the hands of the Filipino people.

On the whole, the nationalism which has helped the Filipino people in their struggle for national existence as an independent nation has been the "protective" type of nationalism and not the "aggressive" type which has characterized those of the young nations of Africa and Asia. This writer believes that the size of the country and the natural temperament of the Filipinos are factors which will insure that future nationalistic endeavors of the Filipinos will be aimed simply to the preservation of the patrimony of the nation and the maintenance of justice, equality and liberty.

315. QUIRANTE, Luceno L. (Ed. D.). "A Study of the Policy of Centralization of Education in the Philippines, 1898-1953." University of Maryland, 1953. 116 pp. Source: Eells, p. 123; University of Maryland, ABSTRACTS OF DISSERTATIONS (1952-53 and 1953-54), p. 52.

This study has a three-fold purpose: first, to review the events which led to the establishment of a centralized educational system in the Philippines; second, to trace the origins of the acceptance of a centralized pattern of education; and third, to delineate the associated effects of a highly centralized school system.

The series of events which led to the organization of a centralized system of education during the early years of the American Occupation were recounted against a background of military events which occurred in connection with the Spanish-American War in 1898 as well as subsequent events during the military occupation and the civil government of the Philippines. In the adoption of an educational policy, American military personnel were instrumental in making recommendations which with those of the Schurman Commission became the basis of the Organic School Law (enacted on January 21, 1907) which laid the foundation for the establishment of a centralized school system in the Philippines.

In tracing the origins of the acceptance of the policy of centralization, four fundamental reasons were discussed as contributory factors:

1. The diversity of the people and the geographical circumstances of the archipelago.

2. The three centuries of Spanish influence on the Philippine school system.

3. The influence of military personnel.

4. The influence of the general policies and purposes of American civilian and military authorities.

The associated effects of centralization were delineated in four selected areas: administrative organization and supervision, school curricula, instructional program and materials, and school finance. It was concluded that the associated effects of centralization were:

1. An increasing degree of control and supervision of education.

2. A trend toward prescription of subjects and courses of study.

3. Standardization in class programs, and centralization in selection of materials of instruction contributing to enhancing unity and efficiency in the operation of the school system and facilitating a general improvement of instruction.

4. Assumption by the national government of the greater proportion of financial support of the school system.

In view of the fact that this study was addressed to centralization of education in general, it is recommended that further and more detailed study be made of the following selected aspects of centralization:

1. Administrative organization and supervision, school curricula, instructional materials, and school finance.
2. The attitudes, impressions, and reactions of the 1,000 American teachers who were imported into the Philippines to set the educational system in operation.

316. QUIROLGICO, Delfin Gallardo (Ph. D.). "Implications of the National Economic Goals of the Philippines for Vocational Education." Stanford University, 1962. 534 pp. Source: DAI, XXIII, 4 (October, 1962), 1254-1255. XUM Order No. 62-4067.

Statement of the Problem

The study analyzed the bases for planning a program of vocational education and focused on forecasting and allocating manpower requirements. The need to develop plans for accumulating strategic manpower resources articulated with economic development programs aimed at increasing the rate of economic growth makes this study urgent.

Procedures

The study consists of 14 chapters: Chapter I defined the problem of linking educational with economic planning; Chapter II described the research design and processes; Chapters III, IV and V analyzed the economic and educational planning efforts and the economic development plans; Chapters VI, VII and VIII assessed the economic and social growth and the program of vocational education; Chapters IX, X and XI adjusted the economic goals to realistic levels, projected the sectoral manpower requirements, and translated the manpower forecasts into educational goals and policies; Chapters XII and XIII outlined the design and strategies of manpower training and translated the strategies into staffing, financial and curriculum patterns for a vocational education program.

Results

The model to link educational plans with economic development programs generalized from the study consists of four steps:

Step 1--economic targets and actual growth are classified into time-series data.

Step 2--economic trends in step 1 are extrapolated into short- and long-term calculations.

Step 3--economic forecasts in step 2 are translated into manpower forecasts.

Step 4--the manpower forecasts are translated into supply, training and school intakes from which curriculums, teacher training and school organizations are designed.

The forecasts of trained manpower used nine equations. Three channels were used in extrapolation: economic growth required by demographic growth, actual economic growth, and economic targets set by the economic development plans. The resulting trend lines manifested three characteristics: population trend suggested the required minimum economic growth, economic targets set the maximum, and actual growth represented the median roughly equidistant from the other two trend lines. The resulting manpower conversions manifested behaviors similar to the economic trends.

Conclusions

The goals and policies for the vocational education program are derived from the economic goals to link human resource development with socio-economic requirements. The economic goals are tempered by the socio-cultural values; i.e., individual choice and social demand. Although occupation-centered, vocational education aims at a balance with the universals of socio-cultural values and allows for the pursuit of alternatives by students. The curriculum patterns consist of occupational training and general education courses in a ratio ranging from 3:1 to 1:1 depending on the developmental strategy utilized; the organizational pattern calls for a central organization which concentrates on national general policy and decision making and local organizations which implement national policy in the light of local conditions; in allocating resources for education, the internal structure of education and geographic-strategic dispersion of services are basic criteria. Geographic characteristics, demographic growth, nature and extent of economic activity, and socio-cultural facts are essential factors in school planning.

Researches in four areas facilitate the coordination of, and provide basic information in, economic and educational decisions:

1. Identification and classification of employment structures by occupational classes and economic subsectors.
2. Identification and classification of national or local socio-cultural facts.
3. Identification and classification of group attitudes including short- and long-term effects of economic and educational policies and strategies.
4. Selection, placement and follow-up studies of trained manpower.

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317. RAGSDALE, Jane Slichter (Ph. D.). "Coping With the Yankees: The Filipino Elite, 1898-1903." University

Jane Slichter Ragsdale

of Wisconsin, Madison, 1974. 533 pp. Source: DAI, XXXVI, 1A (July, 1975), 461-A-462-A. XUM Order No. 75-9994.

This study examines the ends and means of a score of middle and upper class Filipino leaders as they staged the last anticolonial war against Spain of the 19th century and the first major guerrilla struggle in Asia of the 20th century, settling afterwards into a new colonial relationship with the United States. The approach is biographic, focussing on the Filipino side of the story and using Filipino sources so far as possible--in particular, the Philippine Insurrection Records and the Filipino press of the period.

The study is organized around four major inquiries.

I. Given the acknowledged superiority of the United States in size, resources and technology, why did the Filipino insurgents shift their struggle against the Spaniards to the Americans? I propose that:

  A. The challenge was possible because the skills of an educated elite were available to the insurgents. Furthermore, the elite joined precisely because lower and middle-class insurgents sought a change of rulers, not a social-economic revolution.

  B. The insurgents organized to demonstrate their capacity to govern themselves through the creation of a viable Republic and an army.

  C. A cluster of psychological factors was at work: fear of tame submission, willingness to gamble, a compulsion to do something rather than nothing. More important, there were serious misperceptions of American intentions.

II. Given their lack of arms and training, the problem of poverty, illiteracy, varied dialects and deep class divisions, how were the insurgents able to continue the struggle for nearly 2 1/2 years? I propose that:

A. The insurgents compensated for some weaknesses with propaganda and public-relations techniques, playing successfully on United States opposition to the war and making excellent public-relations uses of the Malolos Republic itself.

B. Two factors--the elite-mass gap and regionalism--which weakened insurgent efforts in the first phase of "regular" war became assets in its second, or "guerrilla," phase.

C. The war was not as costly to the Filipinos as disparities between the opponents would make it seem or as Filipino and American propagandists declared it to be.

III. What were the principal results for the Filipinos of establishing a government and defending it? I propose that:

A. The Filipinos won from the Americans all of the reforms demanded in early propaganda and military campaigns against the Spaniards.

B. The failure to win political independence created a 35-year agitation for that goal which overshadowed many vital social and economic concerns.

C. The sense of national and cultural identity developed during the revolutionary period was central to the creation of the schismatic Aglipayan Church.

D. New techniques of mass organization led directly to the formation of mass labor organizations with a decided nationalist political coloration.

E. Relative success in creating an alternative government and in fighting a war against great odds accelerated the liberation of many Filipinos from habits of colonial dependence. In turn this prompted the founding of a lively opposition press and theater in the early American period.

IV. In periods of revolutionary turmoil elsewhere, many traditional elites have lost prestige, wealth, even their lives. How did the Filipino elite survive? I propose that:

A. Despite some defections, the elite's contribution to the Republic and war effort confirmed the status of class members as the "rightful" leaders of Filipino society.

B. In leading or supporting the struggle the elite preserved itself partly by diverting potential resentment of its privileged position into opposition to Spanish and American authority.

318. RAMBO, David Lloyd (Ph. D.). "The Christian and Missionary Alliance in the Philippines, 1901-70." New York University, 1975. 322 pp. Source: DAI, XXXVI, 4A (October, 1975), 2118-A. XUM Order No. 75-21,160.

This dissertation investigates the historical development in the Philippines of the Christian and Missionary Alliance, an Evangelical Protestant denomination, from its founding in 1901 to 1970. Data were gathered from the archives of The Christian and Missionary Alliance in New York City, personal interviews with retired Alliance missionaries throughout North America, and from field research conducted in the Philippines during 1970.

Chapter one is a brief description of some of the religious and political factors that had bearing on the founding of Alliance missions in the Philippines. Chapter two discusses the beginning of the Alliance mission and seeks to determine reasons why the numerical and geographic expansion was slow. Chapter three records and analyzes the history of the Alliance in the fifteen years prior to World War II. This includes a description of the geographical expansion of the Church into the central areas of the island of Mindanao, the development of a training center for Filipino pastors, and movement toward indigeneity in terms of Filipino leadership in the Church. Chapter four traces the effects of World War II on the Church.

Chapter five records the movement of the Church from missionary leadership to a self-supporting and self-governing body, the development of imaginative forms for pastoral training, and the tripling of the Church's membership in twelve years. Chapter six records and analyzes the development of the Church from 1958 to 1970.

The final chapter includes several observations emerging from the study. The first is that the growing maturity of the Church has cast the present role of the North American missionary in increasing uncertainity. The unsettled question now is "how do missionaries relate to a Church that has come to adulthood?" Secondly, this study reveals the value of allowing cultural and economic realities to shape the nature of pastoral training, rather than borrowing North American forms for that training. Finally, the study underlines the importance of lay involvement in the growth of the Church.

319. RAMIREZ, Emiliano Castro (Ph. D.). "Activities and Procedures of Some Community Schools in the United States and Their Implications for the Philippines." Ohio State University, 1953. 444 pp. Source: DAI, XX, 6 (December, 1959), 2183-2184. XUM Order No. Mic 59-5405.

Helping a growing generation to live happily in its world of today is the compelling task of every school entrusted with the education of the people. And since the community school is the handmaiden of society for the education of its members, the school can better perform its function by rendering the best education possible to improve and enrich the quality of living both for the individual and the community. Communities everywhere are facing vital problems of education, health, recreation, taxation, home and family living, morality and religion, and a host of never-ending community problems. This situation will continue as long as people live and seek to attain new levels of living. The first concern, therefore, of the school is to promote the general welfare of the community. Although it is true that the community school is only one among many community agencies, it has the unique role of being the only agency wholly devoted to the educational development of all the people.

To secure definite information about the various ways in which the community school serves its basic function, the writer attempted to investigate community-school practices in the United States. Specifically, the purpose of the study is fourfold:

1. To define, or clarify, the concept of the community school.

2. To study a number of community-school programs in selected areas of the United States.

3. To analyze the characteristics of these community schools.

4. To select the resulting principles, techniques, and procedures which would seem appropriate for possible adaptation and application in the Philippines.

The methods of approach used were:

1. Direct observations of ten community schools and experimental centers in the United States selected on the basis of community-school criteria.

2. Study of descriptive material and curriculum programs of twenty-seven other schools or centers which are doing work closely related to community welfare.

To facilitate the analysis of the community schools, the investigation was divided into four areas:

1. Community-school resources.

2. Community-school integration.

3. Community-school leadership.

4. Activities and procedures of the community schools.

In the writer's observations and study of the community schools and experimental centers in the United States, a number of principles have emerged in the practices of American community schools. These basic principles are enumerated in the study under certain headings cited in the preceding paragraph. A sampling of these principles is listed below:

Utilization of Community Resources

1. Natural resources are used as learning laboratories for school children.
2. Democratic participation seems to have been found the most effective way of bringing into action human resources.
3. There are citizens in every community ready to give time and effort for community-school improvement.
4. Leadership is vital in directing human resources into action.
5. The community school services human resources and the latter service the school.
6. The training of local resource persons has been found successful in helping to ensure the realization of community projects.

The Integration of Community and School for Improved Living

1. The community and school, though a coordinating council or citizens' group, conduct school surveys to gather the necessary data for the improvement of the community.
2. The health conditions of the school service area can be improved through the process of classroom instruction and community activities.
3. The community school extends its health facilities and services to the homes of the people and cooperates with other agencies in this undertaking.

4. The community school emphasizes adequate sharing in citizenship, both in daily living and in participation in political activities.

5. The community school promotes public forums and town-hall meetings to resolve issues and to enlighten the community.

6. The community school promotes universal brotherhood.

7. The community school stresses cottage industries, home production and preservation, and thrift and economic security for each family.

8. The community school provides work experiences for students and enlists the support of various agencies for community employment.

9. The community school leads in building and improving libraries and reading centers for the community.

Community-School Leadership and Participation

1. Every person in the community is a potential leader.

2. A leader is skillful in the techniques of group work.

3. Leadership should be relinquished as soon as others are ready to accept it.

4. Many human values are derived by the children and youth in their participation in the life and work of the community.

5. The pupils should participate in group deliberations involving study, reporting, planning, and decision-making pertaining to community problems.

6. The lay citizen exercises his functions in daily living and in political affairs of the government.

7. The resource person assists the leader in moving toward the achievement of the goal.

Activities and Procedures Underlying the Community Schools

1. The community school is operated throughout the greater part of the day and during the entire year.

2. The community school provides adequate periods or blocks of time for the realization of the service projects.

3. The community school establishes a regular schedule of meetings for the community council and for the student council.

4. The community school requires a number of specialized administrative competencies.

In this brief report, the writer desires to point out the fact that in spite of the prevailing cultural differences between the United States and the Philippines, the people and families in these two countries have certain similar characteristics: they all strive to get better food, clothing, and shelter; they all want to share their experiences with one another; they all want to live happily in abundance and in peace with other people; and they all want to improve their living. Moreover, in the southern part of the United States there is a large underprivileged rural group whose conditions and resources for farming and living are in many respects identical with those in the Philippines. To the extent that this high degree of similarity actually exists, the writer believes it safe to assume that the community schools which the writer personally observed in the South would include many situations which could be adapted to serve the needs of the rural communities in the Philippines.

The writer, however, is very much aware of the fact that in a transcultural study there is no prefabricated or neatly developed formula ready to transform community life in the Philippines. Usually these techniques and practices must be tailored in terms of the available resources, the cultural setting, and the vital problems of the people within the community. Hence, the investigator's attitude has been of a developmental and experimental nature.

The investigator has become convinced that the community-school concept is consonant with the meaning of democracy, and that the community school is one of the best means for promulgating democratic living at the local level. When local citizens cooperate in determining community problems and help in solving these problems, then democracy becomes a living process. The people will get the amount and quality of education they want for their children only as they share with teachers and school officials the important responsibilities of agreeing upon the purposes of education, determining who should be educated and to what extent, deciding what should be taught, and evaluating the effectiveness of education as it improves the quality of living for both the individual and the community.

In conclusion, the writer presents the following statements which he considers to be descriptive of the community school and which might well be characterized as the basic principles of the community school:

1. The community school exemplifies the democratic process in that it is a cooperative enterprise for all concerned.
2. The community school accepts the philosophy that the school belongs to the people and should serve the people which support it.
3. The community school uses efficient machinery for the attainment of its objectives.
4. The community school undertakes surveys to identify the problems and needs of the community in order that the people may work better for community improvement.
5. The community school has a broad, flexible blueprint for attacking its problems and needs.
6. The community school uses community resources.
7. The community school offers opportunity for two-way services.
8. The community school undertakes community-wide studies involving people from all segments of life.

9. The community school builds good public relations.

10. The community school decentralizes power in the making of final decisions.

The writer sincerely hopes that the emphasis that he has placed on the values of the community school and the principles he has enunciated in this report, together with the suggestive techniques and practices that he has presented, will bear fruit in his native country, the Philippines, and will lead to the development of a kind of public education which will improve the quality of everyday living among the Filipinos.

320. RAMOS, Josefina Magboo (Ph. D.). "The Punta Multi-Story Tenement Project: An Experiment in High-Rise Public Housing in the Philippines." Cornell University, 1970. 154 pp. Source: DAI, XXXI, 1A (July, 1970), 499-A-500-A. XUM Order No. 70-12,644.

High-rise, high-density living is a recent phenomenon in Philippine public housing. High-rise structures have been conceived as a means of solving the perennial housing problem especially in Metropolitan Manila. This resulted in passage of a congressional act in 1962 which authorized the design, construction, and financing of multi-story tenement projects.

The objectives of this study were:

1. To make an exploratory investigation of tenant living conditions in a typically designed highrise public housing project in Manila.

2. To examine attitudes and opinions of selected tenants toward some aspects of their housing unit and the housing project environment.

3. To describe and analyze the architectural design, administrative, social, and economic aspects of high-rise public housing projects.

Josefina Magboo Ramos

The Punta Multi-Story Tenement Project, one of the first high-rise public housing projects built in Manila, was used as a case study. A sample of 100 large families on the sixth and seventh floors were selected, and using the questionnaire-interview technique, the socio-economic characteristics of the sample tenants, their problems, and attitudes and opinions about life conditions in the project were obtained. Housewives were chosen as respondents.

Among the findings in the study, it was noted that at least 75 percent of the wives were of child-bearing age, thus indicating the fecundity of the group and its population growth potential. The combined median for the educational attainment of husbands and wives was fourth year high school. A substantial proportion (35%) of the sample belonged to either families of average or high-income classes of Metropolitan Manila. Predominant employment of husbands was skilled trade.

Satisfaction scores indicated that at least 50 percent of the respondents were dissatisfied with their living conditions. This was further elicited by the expressed desire of at least 87 percent to move out if given the chance. Low rent (₱5.00) was the item best enjoyed by respondents in the project. Major complaints were lack of water supply, height of building, noise, and garbage disposal.

An investigation into the various aspects of the project showed that architecturally, the dwelling units had been poorly planned. Standards of health and livability had not been sufficiently considered in design and planning. The very tight space limitations (27 square meters per family) set by the planners brought about not a few uncomfortable internal space conditions--like crowding, lack of privacy, lack of storage facilities, and many unhealthful conditions. Provisions for social life also were found to be inadequate as evidenced by poor recreational facilities. The Social Welfare Administration and the tenant organization, however, tried to provide some of the social needs of the residents.

A general weakness in housing administration was indicated by in efficiencies in management procedures and building maintenance. In addition, the project was shown to be a poor economic venture. Cost analysis revealed that the

Punta project was at least 50 percent more expensive than better-designed single-family or low-rise public housing.

The tenement housing program in the Philippines, while it did provide shelter for at least 10,000 people in its first three projects, has been shown to be deficient and unsuccessful in various aspects.

The idea of "building high" as envisioned by the planners of Philippine public housing leaves much to be desired. The social and economic desirability of high-rise, high density living in the Philippines has yet to be demonstrated.

A major recommendation was to discontinue the design and construction of high-rise structures until a thorough examination and analysis of such projects indicates that they can meet the objectives of the program and that they are acceptable to the people for whom public housing projects are built. Other recommendations related to improving existing high-rise public housing, especially the Punta Multi-Story Tenement Project. Improvements suggested related to provision of physical and social amenities, tenant selection, rent collection, and building maintenance and repair procedures. A coordinated administrative network among different agencies concerned with housing also was suggested.

321. RAMOS, Paz Gomez (Ed. D.). "A Curriculum for Professional Preparation in Health Education for the University of the Philippines." University of California, Los Angeles, 1960. Source: Stucki, p. 88; and Abstract from Author.

The purpose of the study reported in this dissertation was to develop a curriculum plan for professional preparation in school health education at the University of the Philippines. The curricular experiences incorporated in this plan were designed to prepare prospective health educators in Philippine secondary schools for three major functions: responsibilities in the school health education program, health leadership in the community, and coordination of the school activities with the community school program.

The proposed program in health education was based upon:

1. An analysis of the health needs of the people of the Philippines and other Southeast Asian countries.

2. Reports of practices and trends in professional preparation for school health education in the United States.

Other Southeast Asian countries included in the analysis for the study were Burma, Cambodia, Ceylon, India, Indonesia, Laos, Korea, Malaya, Pakistan, Taiwan, Thailand, and Vietnam.

This study entailed the use of the normative study method and bibliographical research. Data on the health needs of the people of the Philippines and other Southeast Asian countries were based upon reports of vital statistics of the various departments and ministries of health. Reports of health projects undertaken by international health organizations and agencies were also examined.

In order to provide a baseline for setting up the proposed program, a description of the historical background of health education in the Philippines and of the professional preparation curriculum in the University of the Philippines was presented. A survey of the nature and extent of professional preparation in health education in selected institutions of higher learning in the Southeast Asian countries and in the United States was also reported. The results of this survey served as a basis for the selection of pertinent practices for curriculum planning and improvement.

Certain conclusions derived from the findings in the study were as follows:

1. In view of the nature and extent of present health problems in the Philippines and Southeast Asia, there is a need for professionally prepared school health educators who are equipped with the understanding, attitudes, and practices necessary to fulfill their

health and educational responsibilities to children in schools, to communities, and to the country in general.

2. There is a need to organize curricula for professional preparation in health education at the University of the Philippines and other Southeast Asian teacher education institutions to meet the exigency for professionally prepared school health educators.

3. Adequate preparation for effective health teaching to meet the health needs of the people includes a major emphasis at the undergraduate level and further specialization at the graduate level.

4. A professional preparation curriculum for health educators which is based upon competencies prepares the prospective teacher to perform her major functions more effectively.

5. The proposed curriculum for professional preparation in health education for the University of the Philippines may also be used as a guide in organizing curricula for professional preparation in health education in the Southeast Asian countries.

6. This study revealed the need for further research in the following areas: growth and developmental characteristics of the Filipino child; activities and needs of the school health educators in the Philippine community high schools; health interests of the elementary, secondary, and college students; curriculum needs for professional preparation in health education of the elementary school teachers; and means of accreditation of a professional preparation program for school health educators.

322. RECANA, Jaime Red (Ed. D.). "Student Activism and Implications for Academic Governance in the Bicol University, Legazpi City, Philippines." Western Michigan University, 1973. 282 pp. Source: DAI, XXXIV, 7A

(January, 1974), 3924-A. XUM Order No. 73-32,497.

Student activism in the Philippines has been identified as one of the problems of the education system in the 1970's. While the emphasis of the study was student activism from 1969 to 1971, data from the Spanish regime to 1968 were included for more background information.

The historical method of research was utilized in this study. Data were gathered, analyzed and collated from books, magazines, periodicals, and newspapers written by Filipinos and other authors.

The findings of the study revealed that:

1. Student activism began in the colleges and universities.
2. Student activism stemmed primarily from concern of the college students with broad social issues.
3. More private schools than government schools were involved.
4. A few student leaders before the early Independence period were occupying or had occupied high government positions, while student leaders identified with the leftist organizations from 1969 to 1971 were either in jail, outside of the Philippines, or unaccounted for and wanted by the government authorities. Student leaders of the "moderate" groups have remained in the Philippines.

The Bicol University should:

1. Continue involving students and student leaders in planning and implementing school activities.
2. Continue the practice of meeting all the student leaders from the various units for "gripe" sessions.
3. Always keep channels for communication open for students and faculty members and school administrators.
4. Consider the adoption of the policy of President Lopez

of the University of the Philippines of continuing dialogue with students on demands that are negotiable.

323. RESPICIO-DIAZ, Annie (Ed. D.). "Factors Associated with Choice of Major in Science Among Filipino Students." George Washington University, 1968. 361 pp. Source: DAI, XXIX, 10A (April, 1969), 3471-A. XUM Order No. 69-5210.

The purpose of this research was to identify the factors related to the choice of an undergraduate major in science and to measure the extent to which these factors stimulate and influence interest in the selection of science as a major and a basis for a career.

A questionnaire and an aptitude test were administered to 927 sample students in the University of the Philippines and a mailed questionnaire was sent to respondents graduating in 1965.

Theories of vocational choice and career development, tested and retested by American and Filipino researchers, provided the basis for the six variables postulated in the study. Responses were reduced to dichotomies and classified by curriculum year and by science majors. Statistical tests (significance of a difference between proportions, chi-square test of independence, and Thurstone's grouping method of factoring) were utilized in the analysis. Data provided on graduates' work and further studies were analyzed by percentage distributions.

Factors that influence students' choice of majors are considerably similar for juniors and seniors. Only in terms of the following factors are juniors and seniors statistically different at 0.05 level: student abilities, immediate factors influencing choice of majors, problems in relation to degree programs pursued, fathers' current occupations and parents' educational attainment, type of periodicals read, students' expectations in relation to finances, and interest in current work as a factor in changing jobs.

A cluster analysis of the highly significant factors associated with chosen majors resulted in these three clusters: Cluster I consists of students' abilities and aptitudes, parents' socio-economic levels and environmental factors. Cluster II underscored the school's role and responsibility in encouraging development of interest in science careers. Cluster III suggests the influence of financial considerations on students' choices of majors. The findings pointed to the great importance of knowledge about one's self, knowledge about college curriculums, and knowledge about the world of work on the choice of a career. The study underscored the responsibility of the individual, his family, and vocational guidance center in synthesizing information to assist individuals to reach a decision to pursue a science career.

The follow-up study of graduates supported the observation that employment status, relationship of current job to undergraduate major, and type of employer help to determine persistence in students' majors.

Recommendations were made in the following areas:

1. Standardization of local tests should be encouraged to measure aspects of the Filipino student's personality at appropriate age and grade levels.

2. Up-to-date and complete information of the school curriculum and projected manpower requirements of various professions should be made available.

3. Vocational counselors should endeavor to generate a continuous dialogue between home and school on the one hand, and between school and labor market on the other, to assist young people in the choice of a vocation.

4. Longitudinal studies should be undertaken on students committed to science, to yield insights on significant influences contributing to development of a scientific career.

5. Considering the role of the Filipino family in the pursuit of higher education and the influence exerted upon the individual in the choice of a major, parents

should be continually provided with up-to-date educational and occupational information to assist individuals in career choices.

6. Vocational counselors should take an active role in making diverse and complex occupational and educational information useful to students and parents.

7. School administrators should maintain an up-to-date list of students by field of specialization, curriculum year, and other pertinent data and make the information available to researchers for similar nationwide studies.

324. RESPOSO, Epifania Robles Castro (Ed. D.). "The Role of Universities in the Developing Philippines." Columbia University, 1970. *222* pp. Source: DAI, XXXI, 7A (January, 1971), 3301-A. XUM Order No. 70-26,800.

The changing times have focused attention on the role of universities in a developing society. Contentions point to seeming little self-evaluation or long-range planning in Philippine universities.

Educational planning which coordinates governmental and institutional objectives to promote individual and societal welfare is a "must" for both university and national development. Long-range planning, in turn, must be informed by institutional self-study.

A developing country, faced with many problems, needs a broad spectrum of educational programs, research, and services. Institutions must use resources wisely and relate to needs of individuals and of society.

Therefore, the purposes of the study are:

1. To identify the role of the university--its nature and functions--with respect to the society of which it is a part.

2. To examine Philippine universities to determine what they are doing with regard to the indicated university functions.

3. To identify issues regarding relationships of Philippine universities to needs of society and individuals, if these institutions are to survive and remain relevant to a developing country.

4. To suggest guidelines whereby the universities may effectively undertake the re-examination of their objectives and functions in relation to the key issues raised.

The study is based on higher education literature of the world, the Asian region, and the Philippines--government reports, general publications, and university catalogues.

The large number of Philippine universities should be able to help solve the country's basic problems, which are deficit spending, poverty, inequitable distribution of income, unemployment, undeveloped agriculture, lack of industrialization, and uneven development. The need is for synchronization of university and economic development. As universities fully develop in themselves, they enhance national development.

Historical and geographical evidence have established the developmental nature and functions of the university--teaching, research, service. The university is essentially the same wherever it is and in different periods of history. The variation lies in the degree of emphasis on certain functions according to the needs of the time and place. The guidelines for appraisal embody the meaning and scope of the university functions. Teaching involves the teacher, student, curriculum, and setting--both the physical and the cultural climate. Research--basic, applied, or action--involves staff, funding, and management. Service--advisory, in-service training, or diffusive influence on society--may be on individual, departmental, or institutional level. Statements on objectives and administration are included since they integrate the total life and work of the university.

The conclusions of the study are:

1. The teaching, research, and service functions of Philippine universities appear to fall short of expectations regarding their role in the development of the nation. Findings apparently point to educational programs and enrollment do not parallel the educational needs of the country; lack of guidance for students; inadequate preparation and working conditions for teachers; little meaningful research related to national underdevelopment; need for more service from Philippine universities.

2. Available facts point to need for reorientation of the government participation in the life and work of Philippine universities--to enable them to perform more effectively in relation to the basic needs of the country.

The recommendations call for:

1. An immediate, incisive study of Philippine educational needs.

2. The establishment of an order of priority needs.

3. Self-study by Philippine universities--to determine where and how they can best perform in relation to the identified needs of the nation.

4. Concerted "directed incentives" by the government, foundations, industry and other agencies, to deserving universities, public and private, and students, to direct them to pursue appropriate programs.

5. Establishment of a national research center of and for universities.

325. RESURRECCION, Josefina R. (Ph. D.). "Identifying and Classifying Organizational Climates of Elementary Schools in Manila." University of Minnesota, 1968. 144 pp. Source: DAI, XXX, 1A (July, 1969), 111-A. XUM Order No. 69-11,447.

Josefina R. Resurreccion

PURPOSE

The primary purposes of this study were to replicate the work of Halpin and Croft in the identification of organizational climates of elementary schools with the use of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ); to test the reliability of the OCDQ as a research instrument in Manila, a different cultural setting; and to establish the OCDQ norms in Manila.

METHOD OF RESEARCH

The sample consisted of all of the 70 elementary schools in Manila. The OCDQ was completed by the 70 elementary school principals and 794 randomly selected teachers. Raw scores and normative-ipsative standard scores were computed. First, individual profiles and then school profiles were factor analyzed to determine the number of significant factors for the identification of organizational climates. Schools were classified on the basis of profile similarity scores. Factor loadings and scores on Esprit + Thrust-Disengagement were also utilized to cross check the profile similarity score method. Reliability estimates were made by two different methods--Hoyt's Analysis of Variance and the communality estimates of the rotated factor solution.

FINDINGS

1. The general pattern of subtest intercorrelations did not differ significantly from that of Halpin's original study.

2. From the factor analysis of the subtest intercorrelation matrix, two significant factors were identified.

3. Of the varimax rotational solutions: the two-factor solution produced a factor loading essentially the same as found by Halpin and Croft except that the Intimacy subtest which was basically a Factor I subtest in Halpin's study came out with high loadings in both Factors I and II in the present study, while Production Emphasis, which loaded in both Factors I and II in Halpin's study, emerged as a definite Factor I subtest in the present study.

4. It was possible to classify the schools into organizational climate categories. Four Manila climate categories were found. Two climate categories were comparable to Halpin's Open and Closed climate categories, and two Manila climates appeared to be hybrids of climates identified by Halpin:

   1. Autonomous-Familiar.

   2. Controlled-Paternal.

5. Reliability coefficients found in the present study were generally low.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Types of organizational climates can be identified with the use of the OCDQ in Manila schools and it is possible to rank the climates along a general continuum--from open to closed.

2. The Manila sample is a good norm group for uses of the OCDQ in comparable areas in the Philippines.

3. Reliability of the OCDQ appears to be low but additional research is needed along this line.

326. REYES, Amelia Lourdes Benitez (Ph. D.). "Impact of Centralized Political Authority on Higher Educational Organizations: The Philippine Case." Stanford University, 1977. 189 pp. Source: DAI, XXXVIII, 9A (March, 1978), 5285-A-5286-A. XUM Order No. 7802222.

The research project examined the relation between the expansion of centralized political authority and the incorporation and restructuring of higher educational institutions. The imposition of martial law on September 21, 1972, in the Philippines serves as a specific case to analyze the consequences of increasing political control and expanding state jurisdiction for changes in different types of school organizations. The legal basis of martial law is contained in an "emergency provision" in the 1935 Constitution and it is referred to by President Ferdinand Marcos as a form of constitutional authoritarianism which has had the "unique character" of a civil-military regime with the supremacy of civil government supported by military authority. Constitutionalism enlarges political authority and institutionalizes the expansion of areas of state jurisdiction, while authoritarianism serves as an instrument to initiate social changes toward a new society which is President Marcos' rationale for maintaining martial law.

The dominance of private education (92 percent of total collegiate enrollment) creates problems of legitimacy and complicates the task of reclassification and restructuring private interests to increasingly reflect national priorities. We predicted that school organizations, varying in institutional strength (defined as weaker and stronger claims to legitimacy), will adapt differently and tend to increase overall changes correspondingly. The new decrees and funding incentives were means to differentially link particular types of schools, which could then better incorporate political demands. We gathered data by administering a survey instrument in September 1974 to a large group of administrators and faculty members (N=1,549) and nine months later returned to the same group (N=635) and measured their responses to the same instrument. Overall changes were analyzed through a four-way analysis of variance and the item mean trends were compared between time one and two.

The study concludes that the expansion of political authority using sheer power derived from martial law produces a few differential consequences. At a given time, it caused weaker organizations (particularly provincial and private schools) to demonstrate compliance adaptations more than the stronger types of organizations (specifically the centrally located and public schools), but the strong and weak types of schools are not differentiated in their attempts to express national commitments. The over time impact of martial law in its present form resulted in reduced responsiveness among institutions and individuals. The overall compliance adaptations tended to be stabilized as institutional and procedural responses, while overall national commitments tended to decrease significantly and move away from the declared national directions. Presumably, the intended dramatic political changes that could have affected the survival status of institutions and also the expected reform measures that could have served as stimuli to develop national commitments were not activated. There were few new structures to facilitate increasing compliance but no actual funding incentives allocated to schools interested in responding to national priorities. Consequently, higher education which has great social legitimacy has not been effectively reorganized by the new centralist regime. No roles were constructed for the private sector to serve as the complementary socialization system of the new regime, nor were educators redefined to accommodate political responsibilities with their educational missions as sustaining forces to construct a new society.

The implications for the Philippines lead one to argue that only a very strong but also participatory centralized regime could stabilize constituent relations. The attempt to establish a corporate structure (which other writers have referred to as "Democratic Centralism") is not yet sufficiently organized to accommodate representation of significant sectors of society and while centralized, has not expanded the possibilities for participation enough to permit (or require) the real incorporation of the diverse commitments of a sprawling set of private educational organizations. It is lastly suggested that this reorganization of the higher education system could in fact become the new institutionalized party of the regime to substantiate centralization, with different schools mobilized to articulate diverse representations of the collective ideology.

327. REYES, Carmen Nacion (Ed. D.). "An Investigation of the In-Service Program for Home Economics Teachers, Division of City Schools, Manila, Philippines." Arizona State University, 1965. 175 pp. Source: DAI, XXVI, 9 (March, 1966), 5271-5272. XUM Order No. 65-389.

Carmen Nacion Reyes

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It was the purpose of this study to:

1. Investigate the present in-service program for home economics teachers, Division of City Schools, Manila, Philippines, and to examine some points of differences with selected in-service programs of local school systems in the United States with a view to introduction if the practices or differences seem to have plausible use in the Philippines.
2. Offer recommendations based on the findings of the study.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PROCEDURE

The sample. Data were obtained from seventy-seven school administrators and 492 home economics teachers associated with the Division of City Schools, Manila, Philippines.

Method and technique. The questionnaire technique was used to obtain information. Frequency count, percentage and rank order were used in the analysis of the responses.

FINDINGS

The findings were:

1. That administrators and teachers recognized that orientation of new teachers was an inportant aspect of in-service programs.
2. Administrators and teachers indicated that constructive suggestions of supervisors was an effective in-service activity.
3. Most of the administrators indicated that supervisors' constructive suggestions after class observation were an effective supervisory practice, whereas teachers indicated a request for schools to provide for a professional home economics library.
4. Administrators and teachers indicated philosophy and objectives of home economics as the area of most con-

cern in the program planning of in-service education.

CONCLUSIONS

On the basis of administrators' and teachers' opinions, this study reflects several future action programs which could develop into an effective in-service education program for home economics teachers in the Philippines. There seems to be a need for further research employing experimental techniques on the effectiveness of certain types of in-service activities, supervisory practices that best meet the professional needs of teachers, and the critical areas of in-service needs for the new and experienced home economics teachers.

328. REYNOLDS, Harriet Robertson (Ph. D.). "Continuity and Change in the Chinese Family in the Ilocos Provinces, Philippines." Hartford Seminary Foundation, 1964. 381 pp. Source: DAI, XXVI, 4 (October, 1965), 1861-1862. XUM Order No. 65-2677.

The problem of this study is to determine the nature and relative importance of the factors which contribute to the continuity of Chinese cultural patterns and those which produce change either by adjustments made within the Chinese orientation or by gradual identification with the Filipino (Ilocano) majority.

Marriage has been the most nearly constant factor in determining cultural orientation. Birthplace, nationality, and residence of spouses serve as criteria for a typology to group families and to predict cultural alignment of the children. Other operative factors are location of the business and residence, religion, languages spoken, and citizenship.

When Chinese in Ilocos marry Chinese the family, (C), invariably identifies as Chinese. In mixed families, (M), the Chinese husband retains his Chinese identity, the Filipino wives seldom speak Chinese and so remain close to the Filipino community. Formerly two-thirds of the mestizo children became culturally Filipino, but within the last decade, the Chinese have been encouraging (M) families to send their children to Chinese schools and to bring them up as Chinese.

Lineage and village ties related to the south China point of origin have been important to those born in China (95 per cent of these are from Amoy and Chuanchou regions) and to some of their children. Clan associations, centering in Manila but including provincial Chinese as members, promote family solidarity, Chinese ideals and practices and loyalty to kuo-chia (homeland). They assist Chinese in adjusting to Philippine life. Together in a Federation they have protested against legal and economic restrictions and discrimination.

The Ilocos Chinese (aliens are .27 per cent of the population) have accommodated themselves to their Ilocano neighbors without losing their Chineseness. They use local food, clothing, household furnishings and equipment, and follow many of the Ilocano wedding, birth, and funeral practices and ceremonies. However, in (C) families, values remain strongly Chinese, and their kinship system is characterized by patrilineal descent, surname exogamy, patrilocal residence, Chinese authority patterns determined by generation, sex, age and seniority, and widows have not remarried.

In (M) families, bilaterality is variously expressed in neolocal and matrilocal residence, in relations with maternal (Filipino) kin, and in modification of descent and authority patterns. About one-fourth of the Chinese husbands of Filipino wives also have a Chinese wife, usually living in China. In such cases Philippine marriages are common-law, as they are when it is desired that the Filipinas and their children have Philippine citizenship.

In spite of, and because of, outside strains, Chinese (C) families are cohesive and there is little evidence of maladjustment. The (M) families show a wide range of adaptation. Some families are unstable, and some mestizo children have behavior problems. On the other hand, many outstanding figures in politics, business, and the professions have come from the families of Chinese-Filipino ancestry.

The writer carried on her research with 62 pure Chinese (C) and mixed Chinese-Filipino (M) families through use of an interview schedule and an Attitude Check List. Cases of several of the families are given in detail. She also examined government immigration records and vital statistics for 1955 and 1961, kept field notes of observations and conversations with informants during nine years of residence in Ilocos Sur, and used resources of libraries, the Chinese Embassy in Manila, Chinese schools and Chambers of Commerce, and periodicals.

This is a study of a Chinese minority in a local situation, but the findings will contribute toward comparative studies with hua ch'iao (overseas Chinese) in other parts of the Philippines and other countries of Southeast Asia.

329. REYNOLDS, Ira Hubert (Ph. D.). "Chinese Acculturation in Ilocos: Economic, Political, Religious." Hartford Seminary Foundation, 1964. 475 pp. Source: DAI, XXVI, 4 (October, 1965), 1862. XUM Order No. 65-2576.

The Chinese in Ilocos constitute an alien minority with an economic dominant orientation. Hua-ch'iao (overseas Chinese) began coming to the Philippines as traders before the Spanish conquest of Ilocos in 1572. Their aim has been to seek their fortune, to maintain a temporary home, and eventually to retire in the China village of origin.

The economic dominant orientation of the Ilocos Chinese has resulted in acculturation of filial piety practices. In Confucian China, the merchant ranked below the scholar, the farmer, and the artisan. Hua-ch'iao were stigmatized by the Ming dynasty as "outlaws" and "unfilial." But they continued their filial piety through remittances, through visits to the ancestral home and tomb, and through their plans for retirement in the ancestral village.

In Ilocos, the role of middle man has given the Chinese a higher social status within Philippine society than was the case in China. Chinese have contributed a new economic wholesale-retail system, thus stimulating the slowly emerging middle class between the "common tao" (common man) and the bacnang (rich class). Ilocano practises of frugality, industry, and migration have been reinforced through Chinese acculturative influences.

The Chinese in Ilocos settled in buyer-population-density areas inside the tiendaan (public market), and when the market was nationalized, they remained in the vicinity of the market. As aliens, they have not been able to own land since 1935, but they have leased buildings for various types of stores. Wives and children assumed active roles in the business. Sons, brothers, and brothers' sons came from China to join the family, remaining until they were able to establish their own business. The business was passed on to the sons or brothers' sons when the owner died or returned to China for retirement.

Recent Filipinization measures, beginning with the Nationalization of Retail Trade Law of 1954, brought a new turn of events especially for Chinese families without a Filipino citizen among its members. The Philippine government developed an ambivalence towards Chinese: demanding assimilation, yet not really encouraging naturalization.

Ilocos ethnic Chinese have retained adapted forms of filial piety. When they marry Chinese wives, ethnic continuity comes through the home. In cases of intermarriage with Ilocano wives, the mestizo children identify as Chinese only if they have learned to speak a Chinese language. Emphasis is being placed on encouraging mestizo children to attend Chinese schools where they can learn to speak Chinese and be instructed in the Confucian classics and filial piety.

Chinese immigration has become difficult under the restricted Philippine quota. The present political problems in relation to the two Chinas have limited travel and communications between hua-ch'iao and family members in Communist China. The question is raised whether a Philippine program towards national integration rather than assimilation would fit the actual contact situation better.

Until the middle of the 19th century, the Chinese who left Manila for Ilocos were required to be baptized as Roman Catholics, though many became Catholic in name only. Most

Chinese in Ilocos have continued to profess certain Confucian-Taoist beliefs, some practice Buddhist devotions, and when they go to Manila, may visit the clan association hall and/or the Buddhist temple. Currently, there are new responses to both Roman Catholic and Protestant efforts.

Hua-ch'iao in Ilocos have made the necessary adaptations to meet the contact situation, but they have resisted assimilation. They have maintained their identity through speaking Chinese, and through continued expression of a filial piety complex: the urge to family prosperity, loyalty to the Chinese people, and worship of or respect for their ancestors.

330. RIVERA, Leonila Pangilinan (Ed. D.). "Professional Opinions Concerning Administration of Special Education Programs in the Philippine Public Schools." University of Arizona, 1972. 204 pp. Source: DAI, XXXII, 11A (May, 1972), 6252-A-6253-A. XUM Order No. 72-16,157.

Problem

This study sought to develop plans for administering special education programs in the public schools in the Philippines. Specifically, it traced the historical development of special education, presented the current status of programs for exceptional children conducted by the Philippine Bureau of Public Schools, and examined professional opinions concerning the administration of special education programs.

Procedure

The historical development of special education in the Philippines was traced through a review of available literature and documents. Books, articles, annual reports, and copies of legislation were secured from the Bureau of Public Schools and other sources in order to gather data and information concerning the current status of programs of education for exceptional children in the Philippine public schools. A questionnaire was constructed to solicit opinions and recommendations for administering programs of education for exceptional children from the Division Superintendents, Division Supervisors, and special education teachers. Based on the history and current status of special education in the Philippines and on data from the questionnaire returns, plans for administering special education in the Philippine public schools were developed. Some accepted principles of educational administration were considered in developing the plans.

Findings and Conclusions

Education of exceptional children in the Philippines started when the School for the Deaf and the Blind was established in 1907. The educational provisions for other types of exceptional children in the public schools were not organized until 1956-1957. The training of teachers for exceptional children commenced through workshops and the first formal training of teachers in special education was for the blind which was initiated in 1963-1964. This was after the Philippine Congress approved Republic Act 3562, "An Act to Promote the Education of the Blind in the Philippines." The teacher preparation programs for the areas of the deaf, mentally retarded, and the gifted started in 1965-1966.

Currently, the Bureau of Public Schools conducts educational programs for the blind, deaf, mentally retarded, and gifted in the public schools. Two additional legislative enactments directly affecting special education have been passed by Congress of the Philippines. In cooperation with the Philippine Normal College and the University of the Philippines, the Bureau of Public Schools conducts teacher training programs in the areas of the blind, deaf, mental retardation, and gifted.

Data from the questionnaire revealed a need for amending the provision of Republic Acts 3562 and 5250 to extend services to other types of exceptional children and to extend teacher training programs to other types of exceptionality.

The administrative organization for special education in both the General and Field Offices needs expansion and reorganization along with additional personnel. The redefinition of special education should include other areas not now incorporated in the present programs conducted by the Bureau of Public Schools. Administratively, the Bureau of Public Schools could expand the existing educational programs in both the public schools and cooperating agencies and by establishing regional special schools. To increase the number of teachers for exceptional children, teacher preparation programs should be extended to the areas of learning disability, speech handicapped, and socially maladjusted and emotionally disturbed.

331. ROSAS, Nilo Lanete (Ed. D.). "Inservice Teacher Education in the Philippines: Present Status and Future Possibilities." Columbia University Teachers College, 1980. 441 pp. Source: DAI, XLI, 9A (March, 1981), 3997-A. XUM Order No. 8105895.

One major trend that has characterized teacher education in the Philippines recently falls within the purview of this study: the emphasis given to the inservice and continuing education of teachers.

The purpose of this study was to identify educational personnel's perceptions of the status and problems of inservice teacher education, as they relate to the four interlocking dimensions of inservice teacher education, which are:

1. Substance.
2. Mode.
3. Delivery.
4. Governance.

Additionally, this study explored the attitudes and opinions of educational personnel towards the teacher center idea as an alternative approach to staff development.

Data sources were 356 elementary and secondary school teachers and 127 teacher educators selected from three geographical regions of the Philippines using stratified proportional sampling procedures. Data were collected by means of questionnaires. The instruments were modified by the researcher based on the questionnaires used in the National Inservice Teacher Education Study in the United States. Frequencies and percentages for each of the responses for the population groups were computed. Chi-square statistic was also used.

The conclusions drawn from data analysis were:

1. Teachers revealed strong commitment to the conventional approaches in inservice education. The mode of inservice training they had most experienced was job-related through seminars and workshops sponsored by the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) with school administrators serving as instructors. Their preferences reflected their experiences. They considered administrators the best instructors of inservice programs and the MEC as the best group to sponsor inservice programs.

2. The substance or focus of inservice programs in relation to curriculum development thrusts reflected teachers' concern for current socio-economic issues in conjunction with the country's development goals. In terms of curriculum content areas, data indicated emphasis on recent educational trends of Western origin adapted to Philippine conditions.

3. Teachers have experienced different inservice modes at least once a year. The mode most engaged in was personal development-oriented, and most appealing was job-related. The most preferred instructors for job-embedded, job-related, general competence-oriented and credential-related modes were school administrators. For personal development mode, the most preferred were college/university professors.

4. Time options preferred for inservice training, in adsition to official time, were summer, weekends, and holidays, with extra pay. To insure that inservice training will improve their teaching skills, teachers preferred their superordinates as instructors.

5. There was strong commitment to the idea of governance of inservice education through collaboration of different constituencies which have vested interests in teacher education. School administrators and teachers were preferred to have majority representation. It was indicated that one major obstacle to collaborative governance was lack of financial support.

6. To guarantee maximum participation of teachers in inservice training, it was suggested that cost be borne jointly by teachers, MEC, and sponsoring agencies depending upon the goals of the inservice program.

7. It was suggested that evaluation of inservice programs be done by teachers and other professionals receiving the training.

8. Teacher educators indicated more positive attitudes toward the teacher center idea than did teachers, who were also positive.

9. Teacher educators indicated a strong desire to see changes in present ISTE practices such as more participation by teachers in planning, deciding, implementing, and evaluating programs designed for their professional development. They perceived inservice activities to be most effective when teachers were active participants and when programs were designed to meet their specific professional needs.

10. The study recommends three of the seven organizational types of teacher centers in Schmieder and Yarger's typology. These are Single Unit Teacher Center, Free Partnership Teacher Center, and Legislative/Political Consortium Teacher Center. Of the four ways in which a center might function, the types recommended are Facilitating Type and Responsive Type.

332. ROSS, Emma Jean (Ph. D.). "Development of a Diagnostic Methodology for Nutrition Education in a Developing Country." University of Pittsburgh, 1978. 136 pp.

Emma Jean Ross

Source: DAI, XXXIX, 3A (September, 1978), 1358-A-1359-A. XUM Order No. 7816812.

Malnutrition is a leading cause of death among preschool children in developing countries. It retards physical and mental growth, increases severity of childhood diseases and invites recurrent infection.

A notable effort to alleviate malnutrition in preschool populations was advanced by Bengoa in 1955 when he introduced the nutritional rehabilitation center concept in Latin America. The centers seek to educate mothers through the nutritional rehabilitation of their children who attend a daily feeding program for three or four months.

Studies of the effectiveness of these centers reveal several serious weaknesses. Research done by Latham, et al., revealed that in many cases the focus has shifted from the central purpose of educating mothers to that of providing curative care for the children. As a result mothers are not adequately prepared to change dietary practices in the home and nutritional gains made by the center program are lost as children return to their homes. Content and methods of instruction are also often those deemed essential by, and derived from, the culture of the health educators and are therefore culturally inappropriate.

The problem of this study was to design and demonstrate a diagnostic methodology for nutrition education in a developing country, purposed to make education more responsive to the needs of the target group and successful in effecting positive change in dietary practices. A modification of the nutritional rehabilitation center was developed wherein the focus of instruction was upon the home, the specific needs existing there, and the mother's changed dietary practices as the determinant of the child's recuperation.

The study was conducted from August, 1977, through February, 1978, in barrio Simimbaan, Roxas, Isabela Province, Philippines. Thirty preschool children and their mothers participated in a four month educational program. Basic components of the diagnostic methodology employed in the program were:

1. Collaborative assessment by nutritionist and individual members of the target group, of nutritional needs, available resources and skills.

2. Collaborative development of strategies designed to provide nutrition information and implement improved dietary practices in the homes of target families.

3. Development of a one to one sustained collegial relationship between the nutritionist and target population designed to reinforce change efforts.

One pretreatment measure and two posttreatment measures of dietary behavior were used to determine change effected by the educational treatment. Findings of the study indicated that:

a. The treatment had a positive effect on dietary behavior with respect to the body building foods group at the .05 level of significance for measure two and the .001 level for measure three.

b. The treatment had a positive effect on dietary behavior with respect to the energy foods group at the .05 level for both measures.

c. There was no statistically significant difference in behavior with respect to the consumption of foods in the regulating foods group.

Results of the study suggest that the diagnostic method is particularly appropriate as an educational method for nutrition education in developing countries. Since it is person and problem centered, it is an effective means of assuring that the perceptual frame of the change agent is not imposed upon the target group. Joint assessment and planning between teacher and student serve to keep instruction highly relevant to the daily lives of the target group and increase student commitment to the learning experience. The diagnostic method proved, in this study, to be an effective means of keeping both content and method of instruction need responsive and culturally appropriate.

333. ROTH, David Franklin (Ph. D.). "Towards a Theory of the

David Franklin Roth

Role of the Philippine Presidency in the Politics of Modernization." Claremont Graduate School and University Center, 1968. 319 pp. Source: DAI, XXIX, 7A (January, 1969), 2326-A. XUM Order No. 68-18,285.

This study attempts to explore the area of politics encompassing the role of a constitutional leader, the Philippine President, in a developing nation.

We examine the relationship between the independent presidential role variables--psycho-personality variables, political role socialization variables, system expectation variables, and leadership performance variables--and the rate of social change.

These relationships are observed in the perspective of two apparent salient presidential games--the presidential political game and the presidential modernization game. These games are interdependent. We suggest that each of the sample presidents--Magsaysay, Garcia, Macapagal, and Marcos claimed to be concerned with the modernizing game. We further point out that each was vitally and primarily concerned with the political game of gaining re-election to the presidential office.

The quest, then, is for the possibility of measuring these role variable dimensions and their relationships to social change in a precise enough manner to be able to predict:

1. Those characteristics of Philippine presidential behavior most conducive to modernization.

2. To illustrate those variables most salient for modernizing presidential role behavior.

With regard to the relationship between the role variables and the rate of social change we find that there is an apparent strong direct relationship between "modernizing" role performance characteristics and the higher rates of social change. However, the leadership sector variables correlate more strongly to increased social change rates than do psycho-personality variables, socialization variables, and system expectation variables. This can probably be accounted for by the ability of the president who is skilled in the leadership sector variable to organize, communicate, coordinate and to a certain extent de-politicize programs of social change.

With regard to the two significant presidential games, our findings indicate that both games are apparently inter-dependent--in the sense that to win the political game, the Philippine president must have been effective in the modernizing game. This success is best measured in implementation of impact programs--such as schoolhouses, irrigation projects, increased production of the staple food, rice, etc.

334. ROTZ, Henry Welton (Ph. D.). "A Study of the Recruitment, Training, Support and Performance of Church Leaders in Three Protestant Denominations in the Philippine Federation of Christian Churches." Cornell University, 1955. 152 pp. Source: DAI, XVI, 8 (1956), 1525-1526. XUM Order No. 15,620.

A survey of 651 church leaders, 80 per cent of the total of those in the three Protestant Churches in the Federation of Christian Churches of the Philippines in 1952, was made by the author. These churches were the Baptist, Methodist, and the United Church of Christ (U.C.C.P.), the latter composed of the Congregationalists, Disciples of Christ, Evangelical United Brethren, Independent Methodist, and Presbyterian denominations. There were two goals:

1. To demonstrate to Mission Boards and church administrators the feasibility of using sociological survey methods as a technique for gaining information not now extant about mission fields andindigenous churches.
2. To provide analyzed information for use by many types of administrators involved in the activities of the above churches and their supporting Mission Boards in the United States.

The special areas of study were: recruitment, training, support, and performance of the Philippine Church leaders.

The method used to collect the data was the mass interview conducted at thirty-six annual area meetings of church leaders by use of a schedule which allowed considerable freedom of response. Careful coding and sorting gave many tables of useful data which were incorporated into a thesis and which are summarized in the following paragraphs.

The Philippine Protestant Churches are in a precarious position in regard to the age of their leaders. Many of the latter are in the older age group and can be expected to be lost to the church in the next few years. There is a need for more rapid recruitment to replace this expected loss of leaders and to enable the church to expand into new fields.

Conversion precedes recruitment usually. Most leaders were converted between the ages of sixteen and twenty years, usually because of personal spiritual growth, the influence of parents or friends, or Bible reading. While some decided upon a church vocation at the same time they were converted, many others decided about nine years after their conversion. They made this vocational decision primarily because they saw the great need for church workers.

The training of church leaders is a large and necessary task for the church. Inadequate facilities for formal education intensify the difficulty of the task. A large group of inadequately trained leaders now in the church want to be further trained by home study courses or refresher courses in the Seminaries. The use of Bible schools for pre-theological training would provide the necessary preparatory education for candidates entering seminaries. The wives of leaders, because of their position in the community, need more educational opportunities. Church leaders have requested additional training in theology and doctrine, homiletics, Bible, church history, church administration, stewardship, evangelism, English, and agriculture.

The Philippine community affects the Protestant Church in many ways. The smallness of this minority church causes leaders in many instances to serve more than one church. The leaders, as they move from place to place, report difficulty with the different dialects. The Sunday School is said to be deficient in number of classrooms, equipment, and literature. High rates of illiteracy would presuppose intensive church activity in the field of literacy teaching, but it is generally neglected. There are more farmers in the church membership than any other occupational group as would be expected in a country so predominately agricultural. Percentages of tenant farmer members vary as to the location of the church in the Philippines, i.e., areas of high rates of tenancy on the land are reflected in the church membership. Religion is reported to be the most frequent cause of community conflict. The conflict pattern is Federation Church vs Roman Catholic Church, and Federation Church vs "sect" churches.

Church leaders in the Philippines usually receive income from three sources: cash salary, food gifts, and outside income. The church provides approximately 60 per cent of the total income. Farming, fishing, and land ownership are the largest sources of outside income. The total income was considered inadequate by most leaders, and few had made any savings in the year of the survey. The income of members of churches is very low, so that the techniques of stewardship used by the leaders give indifferent results. The amelioration of the problem of the inadequate income of the church leader will come with the solution of the economic problems of the nation.

Six in ten of the leaders are ordained and one in five is Seminary trained. These facts affect the performance of the church leaders. Their stewardship promotion is nullified by the inexorable economic conditions of their country. They do not use the traditional "Lord's Acre Plan" and "The Church Farm" in promoting stewardship. They are sensitive to the agricultural needs of their people, but do not conceptualize the complicated total agrarian problem of the nation. They are lacking in books, commentaries, and concordances. More hours of study and more regular times of study are indicated as needs of the leaders. They do not participate widely in community affairs. They do not have a well rounded concept of "community" and do not recognize their responsibility of being a functional part of the community. They do not use specialized study groups for the consideration of special areas of need or interest. The church leaders' duties are decided by themselves alone--not as the result of a democratic procedure with the church board. Sermons tend to be long (40 minutes), and reiterate the leaders' interest in size of church and the purity of the morals of their church members. They fail to organize extension and out-station work, and thus the expansion of Protestantism is curtailed. Further education is considered by the leaders to be the greatest aid to more effective service. More visitation, more administrative planning, the use of records, the participation of their church boards in planning, a more liberal idea of the function of church discipline, and greater participation on the part of church members would also increase the effectiveness of the leaders' service.

A study of three special types of leaders, women, Seminary trained, and ordained, was made.

The unordained women leaders provide a valuable corps of well trained and devoted persons. They constitute one-fourth of the total church leaders. They are used as deaconesses, Bible women, kindergarten teachers, and provincial missionaries. They obtain their training in Bible schools, and are very able in the performance of their duties.

The Seminary trained leaders are usually placed in larger churches, and, hence, generally have larger incomes. A very real problem in the Philippine Protestant Church is to find sufficient churches having adequate financial income to support the Seminary trained leader. These leaders often feel that their training gives them prestige, and there is the problem of convincing these men that this training is not an opportunity to escape continued hard work. These leaders are usually considerably more proficient in the performance of their services and duties than the untrained ones.

The ordained leaders are in insufficient supply. They receive larger incomes than unordained men. They highly respect their responsibilities and use the accepted techniques of pastoral service more frequently than the unordained men. They are loyal, devoted, and, when all factors are considered, are doing their work in an admirable manner.

Henry Welton Rotz

A social group, namely, the Protestant church leaders of the Philippines, has been studied for the first time and information made available for widespread use by all administrators who need such information in the promotion, programming, and budgeting for the Protestant churches in the Federation of Christian Churches in the Philippines.

335. ROXAS, Segundo Villalon (Ph. D.). "Formative Evaluation of the Teacher's Guide for a High School Physics Course Developed by the Science Education Center of the University of the Philippines." University of Colorado, 1974. 292 pp. Source: DAI, XXXV, 4A (October, 1974), 2075-A. XUM Order No. 74-22,385.

A high school physics course had been developed and field-tested by selected teachers in the Philippines for three years. In order to promote wide usage of the course without a massive program of specific physics teacher education, an experimental edition of a teacher's guide for use with that course was prepared by the science education center. The thesis presented here maintains that the guide will serve a very useful function after specific recommended revisions. Secondary benefits derived from the study are methodological and cultural considerations for working with the Philippine high school teachers.

Nine chapters of the experimental edition of the teacher's guide were evaluated using three groups of teachers. The first group of thirteen teachers who field-tested the guide for one semester responded to questionnaires, were interviewed and observed in class, and attended periodic meetings with the evaluators. A second group of eighty teachers responded to a selected set of questionnaires which were sent by mail. A critical appraisal of the contents of the guide was requested from a third group of seven teachers.

Questions about the clarity, adequacy, and usefulness of the guide were formulated. A survey on the desirability of including other features not found in the guide was made as well as frequency of consultation, usefulness, and general attitude towards the use of the guide by teachers of different backgrounds. Several approaches were utilized in the collection of data; in addition to classroom observations, meetings, and interviews with teachers, eleven sets of teacher report forms were designed for data gathering.

Objectives which were found difficult to attain were identified and sources of difficulties were traced. Concepts needing greater elaboration in the guide were identified. The surveys secured information on the following: lessons where teachers desired additional problems and questions, topics needing additional suggestions for drill and discussion sessions, topics where teachers wanted more suggestions for motivating students, desired general format of the guide, scheduling details of lessons, difficulty level of questions and problems at the end of each chapter in the text, and presence of major equipment needed for the course. Difficulties in performing laboratory experiments, teacher demonstrations, and in improvising apparatus also were ascertained. Respondents expressed a universal desire for the guide to furnish an achievement test for the entire course.

The potentiality of wide scale adoption of the guide is indicated by the general favorable reaction to its use by the first and second groups of teachers. The guide was consulted frequently and found very useful by teachers with varying backgrounds.

There was an increase from the pretest to the posttest scores of teachers who field-tested the guide in the subject-matter mastery test. The same teachers scored lower on a posttest measure of attitude and interest to teaching and physics as a subject than in the pretest. There is some speculation that the cultural setting may have inflated the pretest scores. Another concomitant phenomenon is regression, which is inherent in any pretest-posttest design. Teachers' remarks and reactions to the course did not show signs of decreased interest or negative attitude.

336. RUTLAND, Lolita Garcia (Ed. D.). "The History of Teacher

Lolita Garcia Rutland

Education in the Philippines to 1955." University of Florida, 1955. 120 pp. Source: DAI, XV, 12 (1955), 2463. XUM Order No. 14,328.

Records of early history of the Philippines contain no evidence of teacher education. With Spanish discovery and resulting conquest some attempts at teacher education were begun, notably by the missionaries and a few benevolent administrators. Their work formed the basis for the laws of 1863 which authorized normal schools.

While the first normal school, the Manila Normal School founded in 1863, was for men, between the years 1866 and 1896 ten normal schools for women were established. The curricula of these schools reflected the Spanish colonial policy with major emphasis placed on the teaching of the Catholic doctrine. The graduates of these schools were required to render ten years of service to the government and were assigned their teaching positions by the governor-general.

Although under the Revolutionary Government of 1898 teacher education came to a standstill, with American occupation a few schools were reopened immediately with soldiers as the first teachers.

In 1901 the Department of Public Instruction was created. A Bureau of Education, operating within the Department, was given control of the school system of which teacher education is a part. The educational leaders in this bureau were Americans who had exceptional academic and teaching backgrounds. Curriculum, courses of study, textbooks, and other instructional aids, used uniformly throughout the school system, were set by the bureau in terms of American standards of theory and practice. The American educators, however, made some concessions to adapt the curriculum and the instructional aids to the needs and understandings of the native students and teachers. Even so, some educators in the Philippines regard the emphasis upon English as contributing to some of the problems existing in teacher education in the Islands today.

During the Commonwealth period which began in 1935, efforts were made to develop the type of teacher education program which would meet the needs of the changing governmental pattern. With occupation by Japan in 1942, attempts to indoctrinate the Filipino teacher with the tenets and principles of the "Co-prosperity Sphere" took precedence over teacher education.

Liberation, with consequent independence of the Philippines in 1946, brought definite steps aimed at developing an enriched program in teacher education. It was imperative, however, to rapidly train teachers to meet the demands created by the return of great numbers of students to the schools. Because of this emergency situation, some private teacher education institutions degenerated into substandard schools. In 1950, the problem in teacher education was still that of preparing a sufficient number of qualified teachers. Very soon after 1951 the demand was met so far as numbers were concerned but many persons continued to teach who were not qualified either in terms of Civil Service standards or formal education. In addition, both standard and substandard schools continued to produce teachers to compete for the limited number of positions available. This has resulted in an oversupply of qualified teachers even though many positions are filled by substandard instructors.

Realizing the problem of teacher supply, the Congress of the Philippines requested UNESCO and other agencies to make survey studies of the educational system. These studies, conducted from 1949 to the present, encouraged the development of a four-year collegiate type program in national teacher education institutions. Experiments are under way in a few of these institutions to determine the types of programs best suited to meet the problems of local communities.

This investigation reveals certain fundamental questions related to current and deep-seated national issues facing the Republic that must be dealt with in teacher education. These issues are:

1. Language.
2. Nationalism.
3. Economic competence.
4. Religious instruction.

In the face of these issues, what is the task of the leadership of teacher education? In view of the efforts of the Philippine Government toward Filipinization of the educational system, what effects would the addition of the study of dialects to a curriculum top-heavy with language requirements have upon the remainder of the basic professional program for the prospective teacher? Can the curriculum for teacher education be developed solely out of Philippine resources which perhaps are not sufficient or available? Shall teacher education prepare its graduates to work toward the improvement of techniques of the occupations found in the local communities? Shall the curriculum of the prospective teachers provide for religious education so they may assume this task?

In seeking answers to these questions, it is suggested that caution and discrimination be widely exercised before a final decision to adopt any particular measure is made. The necessary decisions will test the genius of the Filipino people.

S

337. SABELLA, Ricardo Hiceta (Ph. D.). "American Educational Policy in the Philippines, 1898-1935: With Special Reference to the Growth of the Public Schools and the Progress Attained by the Filipinos for Self Government." American University, 1935. 357 pp. Source: Eells, p. 123; and Dissertation, Contents pages.

Ricardo Hiceta Sabella

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338. SABULAO, Lily Kintanar (Ph. D.). "The Effects of a Physi-

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cal Science Course Using the Process Approach in Developing Attitudes and Competencies of Prospective Elementary School Teachers at Cebu Normal College, Cebu City, Philippines." Michigan State University, 1973. 185 pp. Source: DAI, XXXIV, 6A (December, 1973), 3222-A. XUM Order No. 73-29,774

The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of an experimental curriculum combining a physical science course using the process approach and elementary science methods course in developing the attitudes and competencies of prospective elementary school teachers at the Cebu Normal College, Cebu City, Philippines. Relationships which existed between intelligence, process, attitude toward teacher-pupil relationship, and content in physical science were examined, along with differences existing between IQ levels and treatment groups for outcomes in content, process, and attitude.

The population consisted of 90 prospective elementary teachers in their junior year regularly enrolled in the course, Physical Science, school year 1971-1972. Eighty-five of the subjects were females and five were males.

The instruments used to measure attitude, process, content, and intelligence were: the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, Science Process Test for Elementary Teachers, A Content-Understanding Test and SRA Verbal Intelligence tests. All data to which statistical tests were applied were secured from scores made by subjects on the instruments. These data were analyzed by the t-tests, correlation techniques, and two-way analysis of variance. The 0.05 level of confidence was held for the rejection of the hypotheses tested.

The design was a longitudinal study without a control group. The instruction of the science content of the course was organized around physical science concepts developed in the area, Matter and Energy. Most of the activities were taken from the Elementary Science Curriculum Guides 1-6, constructed in 1967 by the Bureau of Public Schools, Philippines, with the adoption of the process approach in the elementary science curriculum. The elementary science methods part of the course included an orientation of the use of the curriculum guides using the process approach. A peer-group teaching experience was included to give students apportunities to teach a concept and a process skill. The experimental curriculum also included lectures and independent study questions that were off-shoot of laboratory experiences and discussions. The teaching procedure for the treatment groups was a weekly two-hour lecture and weekly four-hour laboratory: two-hour modular laboratory and two-hour recitation laboratory. The individual and group laboratory aimed to develop the basic and integrated processes of the process approach.

The pertinent findings of this study were:

1. There was a significant improvement between pre- and post-test measures in content and process at the end of the study. This indicates that treatment improved significantly the process and content competencies of the subjects.

2. There did not appear a significant improvement in the pre-post tests in students' attitude towards teacher-pupil relationship. Results showed significant improvement of attitude occurring in the high IQ group only. Since IQ was not related at all to attitude as shown in the study, this could be attributed to some variables not accounted for in this study.

3. A significant increased positive correlation between process and content was found after treatment. This infers that as students became more competent in the processes during the course, they became more competent in the science content.

4. Intelligence and process became significantly correlated in the course of the study. This indicates that the high IQ subjects of the study developed better process competency than the low IQ subjects.

5. Relationship of intelligence and content was not found

substantial at the end of the study. Findings pointed to treatment contributing inversely to the IQ groups, that the high IQ subjects did not gain as much as the low IQ group.

6. There were no significant correlations between intelligence and attitude. This infers that IQ is not an index of students' positive attitude towards teacher-pupil relationship.

7. A significant difference existed among the IQ levels in the three post-test criterion measures. A post hoc comparison revealed a highly significant difference between the High and Low IQ groups. This indicates that of the three IQ groups, the student with the high IQ has the better chances of improving her science competencies in process and content than the student with the low IQ.

8. There were no significant differences between the treatment groups in the process and content competencies at the post-test. This was expected as learning experiences were made as consistent as possible to the three class sections in spite of different schedules and subjects not organized according to IQ. However, a significant difference existed between two treatment groups in their attitude towards teacher-pupil relationship.

9. There were no significant interaction effects between IQ groups and class sections in process and content. This indicates that there were no significant mean differences between the gains of the three class sections in process and content due to IQ distribution in the class sections.

339. SACAY, Francisco Montalbo (Ph. D.). "A Survey and Evaluation of Vocational Education in Agriculture in the Philippines." Cornell University, 1931. 460 pp. Source: Eells, p. 123; and Dissertation, pp. 429, 432-435, 442-456.

Extent of Need for Vocational Education in Agriculture

A program of vocational education in agriculture below college grade should consider two classes of persons. It should take into account those persons intending to enter upon and those who have entered upon occupations of farming. Within each of these classes are groups with wide variations in maturity, experience, interests and abilities. The program should consider the varying needs of these groups. The groups whose needs should be met by a program of vocational education in agriculture of less than college grade are as follows:

Class A. Persons not yet engaged in farming occupations.

1. Boys of elementary school age, enrolled in elementary schools, who plan to engage in farming after leaving school.
2. Boys of secondary school age, enrolled in secondary schools, who do not intend to go beyond high school, but expect to engage in agricultural pursuits after leaving school.

Class B. Persons already engaged in farming occupations.

3. Persons relatively young who have just started and who therefore have limited experience in the work which they are doing.
4. Mature persons who have several years of experience in the occupations in which they are engaged--the adult farmers.

Facilities for vocational education should reach these individuals before or after, or before and after, they enter their life work. It is only through this means that a self-supporting, prosperous, and happy farm population can be developed, and this is the way of developing and conserving the agricultural resources of the country.

There are at the present time probably about two and one-half million male persons engaged in agricultural pursuits. Almost this entire number has received no previous training in the work that they now do. Whatever preparation they have has been acquired by the "pick-up" method. The methods employed by their fathers have been handed down to present farmers through apprenticeship. Hence, the present methods of production, marketing, and management are poor. Practices employed are almost the same as those used decades ago. A program of vocation education in agriculture should provide facilities to meet the needs of these two and one-half million individuals if the country expects to put farming on an efficient and satisfactory basis, and to develop an efficient and happy rural population.

If rural economists are right in saying that the productive managerial life of a farmer is 20 years, then about one-twentieth of the farms in the Philippines are yearly taken over by beginners. The number is probably 100,000 or more. To the degree that this number has been equipped with necessary preparation for the job that they are to undertake, to that degree will they be successful and contribute to the progress and welfare of the country....

Increasing the Effectiveness of Vocational Education in the Public Schools of the Philippines

The program of vocational education in the Philippines should train pupils with regard to "market demands." It is therefore necessary that emphasis should be given to vocational instruction at intermediate level. This is because a greater number needs the training, and those who receive the training benefit by it, for a great portion of them enter the vocation for which they have been trained. On the other hand, studies have shown that a very small percentage of graduates of secondary level enter farming vocations.

It is important that vocational training should be given to individuals who intend to farm and see the need of vocational training, who are interested in such type of instruction, who possess a background of farming experience, and who have the physical and mental capacity to profit by it. There is at present a need for better selection of pupils, especially in schools of secondary level, judging from the high percentage of elimination and low percentage of graduates who actually enter farming occupations. The teacher should have an opportunity to study the applicant and, acting as counsellor, to give him advice as to the kind of education from which probably he will benefit most.

The training environment should be, as nearly as possible, a replica of the working environment of the farming occupation for which the pupil is being trained. Teachers and administrators of schools in the Islands offering vocational agriculture should provide necessary lands, buildings, equipment and materials for the training of the students. The materials with which the students work and the place where the training is conducted should resemble as closely as possible those of the particular vocations for which students are being trained. It is therefore necessary that larger farms be provided. There is a need for enlarging the size of projects. Each student in agricultural and rural high schools should carry a farm project while in school and not for just one or two years.

Because of the necessity of making the training environment approach the actual situation, vocational instruction per pupil is costly. There is a minimum cost below which effective education in agriculture cannot be given. At the present time some schools are poorly equipped with land and equipment. Provision for larger farms should be made. Experience obtained and abilities developed in "garden agriculture" will not be of much use to the individual in life situations.

There is a great need, on the part of the agricultural schools in the Philippines, for utilizing the facilities of the occupation in order to reduce cost and at the same time to make possible a training environment that is a replica of the working environment. At the present time, the schools do not utilize these facilities. In the schools offering vocational instruction at intermediate level much can be done in this direction. A majority of students live on farms not far from the school. It is possible to have them carry projects at home instead of on the school farm. In the schools offering vocational instruction at both levels--intermediate and secondary--field work and demonstrations may be carried on the farms in the area.

Not only facilities, but also experiences of the occupation should be utilized by the program of vocational education in agriculture. The experiences of successful farmers should be utilized. The teacher should find from these farmers the part of the subject matter which really functions. Such contact between the school and the teachers and the workers in the field is urgently needed in the Philippines.

If the program of vocational education in agriculture in the Philippines is to render a great amount of individual benefits and social service, attention should be given to groups who need the training and will profit by it. The program should not devote attention entirely to one group, the in-school group. There is need for giving instruction to young boys who have dropped out of school. The need is especially great with adult farmers. Unlike the full-time pupils who may or may not go into farming after graduation, the adult farmers have specific problems requiring solution. Whatever instruction is given to them will immediately be applied and benefits obtained. From the standpoint of surety and immediacy of results the education of adult farmers merits great consideration. Because of the extent of need, in terms of numbers, education of this group demands attention.

The various facilities of the farm, rural high and agricultural high schools should be kept in continuous use whenever such use meets an occupational need. There are parts of the year when the demand upon the teacher by school work is not great. He should either go out to reach farmers or he should gather individuals who need training in the school for the purpose of giving them vocational instruction.

A great deal of attention should be given by the program of vocational education in agriculture in the Philippines to the placement of graduates.

Vocational education in agriculture in the Philippines will tremendously increase its effectiveness if it is regarded as a preparation for specific farming occupations rather then just for "farming." In the Philippines there are different types of farming in different areas, and each specific type differs from the others in problems to be met, jobs to be done, and the kind of information or technical knowledge to be used. Vocational preparation should be designed for specific farming occupations. The tendency at present is to teach the pupils all about agriculture. Much progress will be accomplished in the instruction of students in vocational agriculture in Philippine public schools if the teacher keeps in mind that his duty is not to impart information about farming or agriculture, but to develop certain doing and thinking abilities which the learner must possess if he is to succeed in certain specific farming occupations.

If vocational preparation is for a specific farming occupation, the preparation of the course of study in agricultural stubjects should be the responsibility of the teacher of agriculture. No uniform course of study can be followed throughout the Islands. The usefulness of course outlines becomes greatly reduced when no adaptation to local conditions is provided for. In the agricultural and rural high schools the teacher should not be required to follow the course outlines prepared by the Bureau of Education. He should be responsible for the determination of the content of his course. He should be capable of assuming this responsibility; if he is not, he should be given the necessary training.

In order to discover the needs of the region and the course content which will function in the farming occupation for which he is preparing the pupils, the teacher should employ community and farm surveys and analysis of various aspects of the occupation. He should not rely entirely on printed matter, or on his impression, as seems to be the prevalent practice. He should make a survey of actual conditions and the needs of farming and farmers in the community. From such survey the teacher should select the appropriate enterprises and should determine the relative emphasis that should be given to each. He should employ job analysis to determine functioning teaching content. Job analysis is a device still unknown to present teachers or at least not practiced by them. Every teacher should be trained to use this device and should use it.

After determining the doing and thinking abilities that a prospective farmer should possess in order to succeed in a certain farming vocation, the teacher should find out what abilities the pupil already possesses. Every teacher of vocational education in the Philippines should find out what these abilities are so that the time available may be spent on equipping the pupil with necessary abilities which they do not yet possess. In the secondary grades, it is even more important that attention should be given by the teachers to this question, for the students are much less homogeneous in age, native ability, and in the nature and extent of their background of farm experience then are pupils in the intermediate grades.

Teachers of vocational agriculture will not be able to teach all abilities which the students need, because of limited time and resources. These teachers should select the teaching content by using as bases "significance" and "probability." Every teacher should determine the problems which are significant in the area, and the students must be equipped to solve them. He should also find out the jobs met frequently, and the students should be prepared to do these efficiently.

The training given should function directly in the type of farming for which pupils are being prepared. Every teacher of vocational agriculture in the Philippines should see to it that skills and technical knowledges which he attempts to teach the pupils will function in actual situations. Undoubtedly a great proportion of the present course has little or no training value.

The training jobs should be taught to the pupils in the same manner in which these jobs are or should be carried on in the occupation. Much improvement in this direction needs to be made in the program of vocational education in agriculture in the Philippines. The teachers should see to it that projects are of such a nature and size that experiences acquired in them by the pupils are the experiences needed in the occupation. Instead of talking about doing a job, the pupils should learn to do a job by doing it. Classroom exercises cannot be substituted for real job experiences.

In teaching certain jobs it is necessary that the learning experiences of pupils be repeated to become fixed to the degree necessary in gainful employment. Because of absence of surveys and job analyses, teachers of vocational agriculture are not familiar with the standard of proficiency to be set up. Very often, in the teacher's attempt "to cover ground," not enough repetitive experiences are provided. Better results will come out of vocational instruction in agriculture in the Islands if every teacher knows the relative importance of the great number of jobs composing the occupation and the standards of proficiency for each. He should then teach the job, giving repetitive experiences in order to reach the standard set up.

The teacher of vocational agriculture in the Philippines should know not only his subject-matter, but also his pupils. Pupils vary in maturity, experience, needs, interests and capacities. Because of these differences the teacher should deal with each learner differently. The teacher should not only know what jobs are to be learned, but what methods to use so that each one of the learners learns in the most efficient way.

To make vocational training effective it is important that farm projects conducted by the pupil should resemble as closely as possible the farm enterprises conducted by the farmers in the area served by the school. At the present time a pupil usually carries just one project in an enterprise, and, usually, the project is of insufficient size. Because of the limited size of school farms, especially in small schools, the project is not of such size as to give real farm experiences to the student. Sometimes the project is in connection with an enterprise not of major importance in the area. Much improvement in the program of vocational education in agriculture will be attained if teachers see to it that the major enterprises in the area are made the important enterprises in the boys' projects. The project should be of sufficient size to enable the boy to employ the same methods as good farmers in the area employ.

Another way by which the program of vocational education in agriculture in the Philippines can be made effective is to tie up the pupil's experiences in supervised or directed farm practice with functioning knowledge. Present practice is far from that standard. Especially in agricultural and rural high schools it is not uncommon that a boy takes a course on an enterprise and carries an entirely different enterprise in his project. Class instruction and farm project activities should be so arranged that the pupil gains from class some help in connection with meeting problems in his project, and acquires experience in his supervised farm practice which will enable him to understand and profit by the work in the class.

Because of limited time and resources, the efficiency of teaching will be conditioned by the efficiency with which teachers of vocational agriculture select teaching units. The teacher should use "type situations." He should teach those things that will be needed frequently.

The effectiveness of the present program of vocational agriculture in the Islands will be greatly increased if the teacher takes into account local and seasonal opportunity in his teaching. He should discard the topical arrangement by which he now teaches his course content. He should teach certain content of the course at a certain time of the year. Direct participation will be possible if the location of the school and the season of the year provide the proper teaching resources.

In the selection of teaching content the teacher of vocational agriculture should also consider the immediate needs of the pupils being taught.

A great part of the inefficiency of the present program of vocational education in agriculture in the Philippines is due to the lack of professional training of teachers. It was not until 1929 that a teacher-training program was organized in the College of Agriculture. If the teacher is to be able to put into operation the suggestions offered, his teaching ability should be improved. An effective program of supervision and in-service training should be undertaken by the Bureau of Education. The Department of Agricultural Education in the College of Agriculture should cooperate in the professional improvement of present teachers. Regional conferences and group meetings of teachers should be encouraged.

A careful consideration of the 21 criteria and the suggestions just discussed, by teachers, administrators, and supervisors of vocational education in agriculture in the Philippines, and also by teacher trainers, will contribute a great deal to increasing the effectiveness of the present program of vocational education in agriculture in the public schools of the Philippines.

Francisco Montalbo Sacay

Increasing the Effectiveness of Agricultural Extension Work in the Philippines

The agricultural extension agent is first of all a teacher. As such his first concern is the farmers, and his job is the production of changes in them. The agricultural extension agent should act as a service agent only in so far as this is necessary to accomplish his educative purposes. It appears that the present activities of the agricultural extension agents in the Philippines need redirection of emphasis. The first concern should not be the production of improved plants and animals, but of improved farmers.

Experience in the United States has proved that the agricultural extension work has a must better chance of success when administered by the agricultural colleges; and that educational functions and regulatory functions do not go together. These experiences point to the need of placing the extension work in the Philippines in the College of Agriculture instead of in the Bureau of Plant Industry.

The agricultural extension work should not be regarded as a prescription from the central office to be administered to individuals, but rather as an activity, where local people are given a hand in the discovery of needs, formulation of means and methods to employ to meet these needs, and carrying out of the program.

One of the greatest needs of the agricultural extension program in the Islands at the present time is the establishment of an organization of farmers with which the agent may develop his program and carry it out. It is unwise for the agent to spend his time in individual service. A leader should be chosen in each barrio or village by the farmers living therein, and leaders from different barrios of each town should compose a town committee with a town chairman. The chairmen of the different towns will make up the provincial agricultural committee. The agent works with the town committee in matters affecting the entire town, and with the provincial agricultural committee in planning and deciding the program of work that should be carried out in the province. In addition to an annual plan of work, a long-time program of agricultural and human development should be formulated.

A definite program of work for the year, based on the needs of the farmers being served, is a great need of the present program of agricultural extension work in the Philippines. Each agent should have a written plan of work, showing the objectives to be attained during the year and the methods to be employed. His calendar of work should show the different activities to be undertaken at different times of the year.

The extension agent, in teaching farm people, should know how and when to use the different teaching devices characteristic of agricultural extension teaching. Of these devices, the method and result demonstrations and tours are probably the best suited to Philippine conditions.

A check should be provided in the program by means of which the progress of the work and the effectiveness of extension methods may be determined. Results of the work should be recorded. It is suggested that agricultural extension agents should report results not solely in terms of products; it is more important probably that they should report them in terms of individuals and their changed practices. Attempts should also be made to determine, in so far as is possible, changes in disposition and points of view in respect to needs and in respect to the agricultural extension program.

The barrio leader is one of those participating in the planning and carrying out of the program who will go far to condition the success or failure of the work. Great care should be given to the selection and training of these leaders. It is important that adequate recognition and reward should be given for their services. The agent should give considerable attention to the development of local leadership that will function in meeting the needs of the region.

With a trained extension agent, capable of incorporating in his work the various suggestions offered, the effectiveness of agricultural extension work will be greatly increased. Provision should be made for enlarged facilities in order to reach every province, every town and barrio, and every individual.

It is finally suggested that the work of extension education be broadened in its scope so that various problems facing other groups of the farm population may be met. Farmers' wives, farm women, and farm children have numerous problems which may be met through educational procedures. Adequate support should be given to comprehensive programs of agricultural extension education so that this major portion of the population of the Philippines, the farm people, may lead "an efficient, satisfying and dynamic life."

340. SALAMANCA, Bonifacio S. (Ph. D.). "The Filipino Reaction to American Rule, 1901-1913." Yale University, 1965. 378 pp. Source: DAI, XXVI, 11 (May, 1966), 6683. XUM Order No. 66-1098.

The present study is a preliminary inquiry into the impact of American civilization upon Philippine institutions. This impact is viewed from the standpoint of the Filipino response to American policies and the reception of American institutions during the Taft Era (1901-1913).

The Filipino response to, and reception of, American rule and institutions was especially influenced by the aspirations and attitudes of the Filipino elite--the traditional caciques and ilustrados. American cultural influence might have been more profound had the United States not chosen to govern the Filipinos through the relatively more Hispanized among them, who were generally the elite.

Most of the institutional arrangements under American rule benefited the elite. The latter represented Filipino participation in the American-controlled Philippine Commission and in the judiciary, and their control of local governments was made all the more secure by the neutralization of the Roman Catholic Church as a political force. Most importantly, the elite dominated the Assembly and the party system, which were introduced in the Philippines for the first time under American rule.

Free trade relations between the Philippines and the United States and the latter's failure to modify the economic understandings of the social order also enhanced the position of the elite. Caciquism was hardly diminished because the American, effort to create a body of independent landholders had only a limited success; not even the public schools made significant inroads against caciquism during the Taft Regime.

American rule, however, engendered fundamental developments in education and in religion. Secular public schools with English as the language of instruction were established. The Aglipayan Movement became a reality. Protestantism was introduced, and the Catholic Church initiated reforms in its practices in the Philippines.

The very fact that the aspirations of the Filipino elite were being realized under American rule led them to moderate their views on independence, so that by 1913 only a small minority of the independistas regarded the complete severance of all ties with the United States an immediate objective.

By the end of the Taft Era, the patterns of Philippine-American relations in subsequent years--and so conspicuous even in our own times--had begun to emerge.

341. SALAS, Dominador Justiniano (Ed. D.). "Selected Relationships Between Education and Economic Development with Special Reference to the Philippines." Rutgers University, 1972. 130 pp. Source: DAI, XXXIII, 4A (October, 1972), 1331-A. XUM Order No. 72-26,795.

Previous comparative international studies concerning education and economic development have shown a high degree of positive correlation between post-primary enrollment and high-level manpower ratios on one hand, and economic development indices, on the other. This finding has generally been supported by intra-national studies on the contribution of education to economic growth. However, the Philippines' economic development indices consistently show a far lower level than could be expected from the country's "educated" manpower--a situation that is inconsistent with the commonly observed relationship. The present study attempts, in the context of countries comparable to the Philippines in over-all development, to find some factors that may have contributed to this apparent discrepancy and to identify some aspects of human resource development that correlate more significantly with economic indicators with respect to the Philippines.

Forty-four variables--grouped into broad categories of education, communication, demography and economy--have been selected (on the basis of their occurrence in literature on national development) for which data are complete for either the twelve or the seven sample countries. The countries are ranked in each variable and Spearman correlation matrices derived through a computer program. In eighteen additional variables on which data are incomplete, the countries are ranked but are not included in the correlation matrix.

In nearly every case the relative position of the Philippines on the lower half of the rank order continuum, i.e., on the same side of the country's economic position and directly opposite those of the quantitative indicators of "educated" manpower which lie close to the upper pole of the continuum. This suggests that the Philippines' post-primary enrollment has expanded far ahead of the more qualitative aspects of educational provisions and mediating cultural factors which appear to be closely related to economic indicators.

For the sample countries as a whole the following educational variables have been found to be most frequently and significantly correlated, at least at the five per cent level, with economic variables: enrollment-survival ratio, vocational enrollment ratio, and educational expenditure per inhabitant.

Next to the above variables in importance in terms of the same criteria are special-education enrollment ratio, literacy rate, and homogeneity of language of instruction.

All the communication variables and those relating to health facilities and services generally show better correlation with economic variables than does education as was to be anticipated from the somewhat economic nature of the former group of variables themselves.

Some personal observations of Philippine conditions suggest unfavorable traditional habits and values that may militate against economic productivity, e.g., dislike for manual work, conspicuous consumption, corruption in public office, and laxity in the enforcement of compulsory education laws. There is also a strong evidence that post-primary enrollment and graduate ratios do not reflect the Philippine manpower situation accurately because of considerable emigration, maldistribution and unemployment of high-level manpower.

The inferences that are made from the present study are:

1. That the Philippines has had a low level of economic development partly because it has had a low level of development in those aspects of human development which are most frequently and significantly correlated with economic indicators.
2. That these deficits in human development--together with the fact of emigration, maldistribution and unemployment of high-level personnel and perhaps with unfavorable traditional attitudes and cultural values--account for the apparent disparity between quantitative measures of human resources and economic indices in the Philippines.

342. SALAZAR, Leticia G. (Ed. D.). "Individualized and Personalized Instruction for Quality Education in Philippine Public Elementary Schools." University of Tennessee, 1974. 178 pp. Source: DAI, XXXV, 10A (April, 1975), 6408-A. XUM Order No. 74-27,236.

The purpose of this study was to determine how individualized instruction might be implemented effectively in Philippine elementary schools in order to achieve quality education. It was assumed that individualized approaches to curriculum and instruction could contribute greatly to quality education and also to the successful implementation of the continuous progression scheme (CPS) recently adopted in the Philippine Public School System.

A teacher questionnaire was developed and used to conduct a survey in a typical school division of the Philippine Public School System in order to get an objective and quantifiable appraisal of the existing school practices in public elementary schools. Approximately 500 copies of the questionnaire were distributed in three representative school districts. Personal follow-up of respondents gave a return of 93.4 percent or a total of 467 completed questionnaires.

Data obtained from the questionnaires provided pertinent information about the nature and extent of individualized instruction taking place in Philippine public elementary schools. About 66 percent of the respondents indicated that they had started individualizing instruction in their schools. However, their responses to Part II of the questionnaire indicated that they still operated in the traditional mode of teacher-paced instruction.

A Chi-square analysis indicated that there was not congruency between teachers' practices in Philippine public elementary schools with respect to individualized instruction and their professed beliefs about such instruction. This major finding has indicated that teachers in the schools surveyed have not actually shifted from traditional, teacher-paced instruction to individualized and personalized instruction. It also suggests that teachers need more preparation and training in order to implement more effectively individualized approaches to curriculum and instruction in order that the individual learner may learn and progress in his own style and at his own pace.

It is therefore recommended from what was learned through this study that in designing and implementing individualized instruction programs, considerable attention be given to the following basic instructional principles:

1. Purposeful pacing which helps the individual learner to develop his optimum potentialities at his own rate.

2. Alternative means for learning designed to fit the varying learning styles, needs, and concerns of learners in a class.

3. Self-evaluation which allows the learner to realize how much progress has been made on the basis of past performance.

4. Decision-making activities extended to students.

5. Purposive interaction of the learner with the teacher and fellow students designed to promote cooperation and wholesome interpersonal relationships.

343. SALVADOR-BURRIS, Juanita I. (Ph. D.). "Modernization, Social Class, Childrearing and Children's Cognitive Performance: Their Inter-Relationships in an Urban Community in the Philippines." University of Chicago, 1977. Source: DAI, XXXVIII, 3B (September, 1977), 1472-B-1473-B.

THE PROBLEM

The major aim of the study was to examine the relationships between modernization, social structure, childrearing beliefs, values and practices, and preschool children's cognitive performance, in the specific dynamics and complexities of an urban community in the Philippines. The two major hypotheses of the study were:

1. Significant differences between Lower class and middle class will be found on: characteristics suggestive of modern lifestyle, psychological modernity of mothers, childrearing beliefs, values and practices, and cognitive performance on an IQ test.

2. Social structural characteristics suggestive of modern lifestyle, psychological modernity of mothers, and childrearing beliefs, values and practices will be

found significantly related to children's cognitive performance.

METHODS

As an interdisciplinary investigation of these relationships, informed by the theoretical conceptualizations of the relationship between social structure, socialization and child development from the disciplines of anthropology, sociology and psychology, several research methods were used:

1. Extensive ethnographic observation and interviewing in the community for historical and contemporary evidence of modernization and of the community's social structure.

2. Standardized childrearing interviews of mothers.

3. A measure of Psychological Modernity, developed specifically for the study.

4. Wechsler Preschool and Primary Scale of Intelligence Test (WPPSI).

The study was conducted in a community in Manila of approximately 20,000 residents. Sixty mothers (thirty lower class and thirty middle class) were interviewed and their preschool children, also sixty, ranging in age from 4 to 7 were tested. All instruments were in Tagalog, the native language. The criterion variable for social class was income, supported by observations of type of housing materials and furnishings in the home.

RESULTS

The main findings were: Regarding Hypothesis I:

1. Unequivocal ethnographic and statistical data showed the two groups to be significantly different from each other.

2. In their experiences of modernization, the two groups differed only in the frequency with which they practice a modern lifestyle.

3. Mothers did not differ in their degree of Psychological Modernity.

4. They were very similar in their child rearing beliefs, values and practices, except in a few areas.

5. Children differed in their cognitive performance on the IQ test (in the full IQ, in the Performance part, but not in the Verbal part).

Regarding Hypothesis II:

1. Father's education and mother's Psychological Modernity were the two childrearing factors significantly correlated with children's IQ scores.

2. Childrearing was not related to mother's Psychological Modernity nor to children's cognitive performance.

DISCUSSION

The findings on Hypothesis I were interpreted within the framework of modernization and the peculiar characteristics of the sample groups. Several factors were considered:

1. The unusually high education and mass media participation of the lower class mothers.

2. The time it takes for social class differences to be observable.

3. The insufficiency of modernization experiences through the mass media to produce modern attitudes and behavior.

The findings on Hypothesis II were examined in the light of current theory and research findings about the nature and dynamics of parental influence and the consequences of childrearing to child development. Some possible dynamics of how father's education and mother's Psychological Modernity influence children's IQ were also presented.

IMPLICATIONS

1. Modernization theories will have to include, in their formulations, aspects of an emerging political consciousness and participation in non-Western countries.

2. The father's role in child development deserves more study as well as more personal dimensions of the parents' sense of efficacy, competence, etc.

344. SAMONTE, Quirico Segundo, Jr. (Ph. D.). "A Situational Analysis of Public School Enrollment in the Philippines." University of Michigan, 1960. 139 pp. Source: DAI, XXI, 12 (June, 1961), 3680. XUM Order No. Mic 60-6927.

Proceeding from the assumption that a school system is a part of and is conditioned by the character of the society in which it is situated, this study examines how a number of selected situational factors are associated with size of public school enrollment in the Philippines as of 1939. These situational factors include:

1. Land tenure.
2. Age composition.
3. Population pressure.
4. Level of living.
5. Relative frequency of Protestants.
6. Relative frequency of non-Christians.

The forty-nine provinces are used as units of analysis, and the data are drawn largely from:

1. The Philippine Census of 1939.

2. The Forty-First Annual Report of the Director of Education for the period covering July 1, 1939, to June 30, 1940.

Based on correlation coefficients obtained in the analysis, enrollment in the public elementary schools is found to be positively associated with:

1. The percentage ratio of ownership to tenancy by area of farms (.332).
2. The ratio of the "economically active" (20-64 years of age) to other age groups (.014).
3. Level of living (.338).
4. The relative frequency of Protestants (.167).

On the same school level, enrollment is negatively associated with:

1. Population pressure (-.131).
2. The relative frequency of non-Christians (-.566).

By comparison, enrollment in the public high schools is found to be positively associated with:

1. The percentage ratio of ownership to tenancy by area of farms (.425).
2. The ratio of the "economically active" (20-64 years of age) to other age groups (.264).
3. Level of living (.245).
4. The relative frequency of Protestants (.245).

On the same school level, enrollment is negatively associated with:

1. Population pressure (-.119).
2. The relative frequency of non-Christians (-.276).

In addition to comparing the influence of these situational factors on enrollment by school level, further refinement in the analysis is obtained by the use of partial correlations to "parcel out" the association of a number of selected control variables. These control variables include:

1. The gross peso value of annual agricultural production per capita.
2. Enrollment in the private schools.
3. Availability of public schools.
4. The accessibility of public schools.

The study concludes with:

a. A summary of the findings.

b. An analysis of their implications for the contemporary Philippine setting.

c. A list of research categories suggested for further study in comparative education.

345. SAMONTE, Soledad Espejo (Ph. D.). "The Program and Supervision of Elementary Student Teaching in Three Mid-Western Teacher Educating Institutions and Their Implications for Teacher Education in the Philippines." University of Minnesota, 1953. 471 pp. Source: DAI, XIII, 5 (1953), 729. XUM Order No. 5367.

The purpose of this investigation was to gather ideas about the program and supervision of elementary student teaching in the Iowa State Teachers College, the Wisconsin State College in Milwaukee, and the Illinois State Normal University which may be adapted in the Philippines. Interest in this research was prompted by the desire to contribute to the effectiveness of the new four-year elementary teacher education program in the Philippines. Beginning in 1954, the minimum qualification for elementary teaching in the Philippines will be graduation from a four-year elementary teaching curriculum above the secondary level.

The three Mid-western institutions visited are not random samples of American institutions. They were selected because they are old institutions and are often mentioned in the significant volume, School and Community Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education. They are also near Minnesota where the writer pursued her graduate studies. The enrollment in each of there institutions approximates that of the Philippine Normal College, where she teaches.

The methods used in collecting data for this research were direct observation without instrumental control, unstructured interview, and references to written materials.

Background for this research was:

1. The writer's experience as an elementary classroom teacher, elementary school principal, and instructor of professional courses in teachers' colleges in the Philippines.

2. Courses in supervision of student teaching, professional education of teachers, and a workshop in teacher education at the University of Minnesota.

3. A review of twenty doctoral dissertations covering student teaching and related activities. These dissertations were accepted by American universities from 1940 to 1951. Books and periodicals related to student teaching published after 1943 were also reviewed.

The following major findings of this research may possibly be adapted in Philippine teacher-educating institutions:

1. The three institutions visited are members of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Ecuation. The Philippine institutions preparing teachers should also consider forming a voluntary organization to raise their standards of teacher education.

2. Suggestions are offered to improve teacher education in the Philippines by various methods. Examples are:

   a. Cooperative determination of the competencies desired in today's elementary teachers.

b. Operational definition of the desired competencies to facilitate their achievement and evaluation.

c. Provision for courses to educate workers in teacher education, with special reference to those engaged in supervising student teaching.

d. Tuition-free courses for cooperating teachers.

e. Institutes, workshops, seminars, conferences, and committee work to promote the in-service education of faculty members and administrators.

f. Cooperative determination of the objectives of student teaching, and the responsibilities of student teaching supervisory personnel.

g. Publication of professional teachers' magazines at cost.

h. Stimulation and guidance of teacher education research.

i. Development of a handbook for student teachers.

j. The need for cumulative records, including their use in placing students in a student teaching situation in which he has opportunity for maximum development.

k. The guidance of student teachers through seminars, course work, conferences, and written guides.

l. The use of various techniques in evaluating student teachers' growth and development.

3. The inclusion of nursery and kindergarten classes in laboratory schools.

4. Evaluation of student teaching supervision and course work by college students.

5. A course in public relations for schools.

6. Maintaining good human relations among student teachers, supervisors, and coordinators.

The final chapter contains a brief historical sketch of the Philippines, and the present trends in elementary teacher education.

346. SAN DIEGO, Carmela Cristobal (Ph. D.). "An Investigation of the Relationship Between the Supervisory Orientation and Organizational Behavior in Public Elementary Schools in the Philippines." University of Oklahoma, 1977. 88 pp. Source: DAI, XXXVIII, 4A (October, 1977), 1805-A. XUM Order No. 77-21,404.

The purpose of this study was to describe the relationships between the supervisory orientation and organizational behavior in public elementary schools in the Philippines. The samples were randomly selected from a population of more than one hundred public elementary schools in the central region of the Philippines. Two research questions investigated in this study were:

What is the positive relationship between the supervisory nomothetic orientations of school incumbents and task behavior in school?

What is the relationship between the supervisory idiographic orientations and task behavior in school?

The organizational behaviors were assessed through the use of Halpin and Croft *Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ)*, a sixty-four item Likert type instrument. The supervisory orientations were measured through the use of *Survey Management of Beliefs (SMB)*, a 9 point Likert scale, which items were derived closely from Theory Y and Theory X assumptions of McGregor. *The Orientation Inventory (ORI)* is a twenty-seven, self administering booklet of attitudes and opinions developed by Bass. Thirty-four principals and 770 public elementary school teachers responded to all of the three instruments.

The Pearson r was used to determine the relationships between organizational behaviors and supervisory orientations variables and a significance of .05 level was adopted to test the significance of the computed r's. A t test was computed for all the correlational coefficients.

The overall results revealed the following findings:

1. No significant bivariate relationships existed between the organizational behaviors (disengagement, hundrance, aloofness, and production-emphasis) and supervisory nomothetic orientations (theory X and task orientation) as reported by all of the teachers included in the study.
2. The data as reported by the principals showed that these two domains were related by two significant positive correlations: correlations between theory X and production emphasis; and task orientation and production emphasis.
3. The supervisory idiographic orientations (theory Y and interaction orientation) and organizational behaviors (esprit, intimacy, thrust, and consideration) were not significantly related as reported by both teachers and principals.

The results of the investigation warrant far more sophisticated research designs and studies to map the domain of organizational behaviors and supervisory values and orientations within the organizational setting.

347. SANGALANG, Luz E. (Ed. D.). "Some Aspects of Science Education for Rural Philippines and Implications for the Education of Teachers for the Community Schools." Indiana University, 1961. 187 pp. Source: DAI, XXII, 4 (October, 1961), 1093-1094. XUM Order No. 61-3224.

Luz E. Sangalang

The study attempted to:

1. Determine specific areas of needs in which science education may contribute toward the improvement of living conditions in Philippine rural communities.

2. Define common experiences which have potentialities for meaningful science teaching in these communities.

3. Design illustrative learning experiences in science based on these needs and common experiences.

4. Draw implications for the education of teachers for the community schools.

Procedure

A checklist of rural needs, based on a comprehensive review of literature on Philippine rural life, was submitted to the directors of different agencies of the Philippine government involved in rural development, with the request that they rate the degree of importance they attributed to each need. On the basis of the results of this checklist questionnaire, the community school philosophy of education in the country, and the potentialities and resources of Philippine rural communities, criteria for the development of science learning experiences were set up. A few learning experiences were designed to illustrate how science education may minister more directly to the more urgent needs of rural life.

Findings

1. In the area of need, the most urgent were improvement of health and increase in economic production.

2. In the area of economic production, improvement of practices in rice culture, soil conservation, and increase in meat supply were, in this order, the most significant problems.

3. In the area of rice culture, seed selection, control of insect pests, diseases and rats, and fertilization of soil were the most urgent problems; in the area of soil conservation, the eradication of *kaingin* (shift-

ing cultivation), the prevention of soil erosion, and the restoration and maintenance of soil fertility were the most important needs; and in the area of increasing the supply of meat, poultry raising and the immunization against disease meet the needs disclosed in the study.

Illustrative science learning experiences

Four learning experiences in science, based on poultry raising, rice culture, conservation, and gardening, were designed to suggest approaches by which science teaching may help meet the needs disclosed in the study. Typically a learning experience revolved around experiments with controls, conducted in the school or on local farms, demonstrating the advantages of the application of scientific principles. Record-keeping was emphasized as an aid to accurate observation. Home projects and devices to secure involvement of the community were cited. The underlying principle in the conduct of the learning experiences was cooperative action of both children and adults on a significant problem of community life. Integration of the different subject-matter areas and development of the fundamental skills through the learning experience were pointed out.

Implications for teacher education

Teacher education programs must be guided by the fact that the school must act as a direct agent for desired changes. Toward this end the curriculum should include:

1. Rural sociology and economics, with a special problems approach. The teacher should be equipped with skills in obtaining basic information about rural conditions on which to develop learning experiences.

2. Experience with youth and adult community service projects involving work with rural welfare agencies and skills in group dynamics.

3. Practical experiences in conducting experiments demonstrating desirable practices in economic production and in health improvement.

Luz E. Sangalang

4. Courses in the biological and physical sciences emphasizing the practical applications of science to common rural needs.

348. SANGUINET, Edwin H. (Ph. D.). "A Foundation for Curriculum Construction Based on a Child Activity Survey in the Philippine Islands." Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934. Source: Eells, p. 123; and TCCU DIGESTS, IX (1934), pp. 166-168.

Setting and Purpose of the Problem

The Spanish-American War and the Philippine Insurrection which followed it practically destroyed the limited school system which existed prior to these disturbances. One of the first acts of the American regime, after peace was declared, was the establishment of a system of free, public education. During the thirty years which have elapsed since that time, the Bureau of Education has grown to an organization of 28,000 Filipino teachers with an enrollment of approximately 1,200,000 pupils. Such an enormous expansion made it necessary to spend the major portion of the time in earlier years on organization and administrative problems. The American system of education, courses of study, textbooks and methods, were transplanted bodily. No other alternative existed.

During recent years there has grown a strong feeling that the school activities should be brought closer to the activities of daily life in the Philippines. This movement has led to the formation of a curriculum revision program.

This study is an attempt to show how a foundation for a definite, yet broad and flexible curriculum, which grows out of the life of the children, may be developed by surveying and evaluating the out of school activities of children. The proposed plan stresses the use of the experience of children in everyday life as a point of departure for school instruction, and describes a method by which a curriculum may be constructed which directs

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those activities toward the fulfillment of adult needs for citizenship in a changing civilization.

The purpose of this investigation may be more specifically stated as:

A. To make a cross-section survey of the whole range of activities outside of the classroom of boys and girls in Grade VII of the Philippines.

B. To evaluate these activities in terms of "value of an adult in everyday life" and "interest to the child," judged, respectively, by parents and teachers, and by pupils and teachers.

C. To combine the smaller activities into convenient categories of larger areas of life activity which are suitable for teaching units.

D. To organize those activity areas and their respective evaluations on both criteria so that an answer may be quickly obtained to any general question which may be expected to arise, following the acceptance in the future of any educational philosophy that applies to those data.

E. To present a tentative list of activity areas which may be used as a foundation for the curriculum.

F. To briefly describe the steps taken in other studies in the curriculum program which give direction and purpose to the foundational activity areas.

Method of Attack

It would have been desirable for the writer to have given individual instruction to each teacher who participated in the study, but this was not possible because of the prohibitive cost and also of the difficulties of travel. Therefore, the following alternatives were used:

1. In the summer school classes for teachers held in Baguio, the writer explained the techniques involved, and each teacher was requested to hand in completed samples of practice material to insure that the instructions were fully understood.

The total enrollment was one hundred and sixty teachers, and included one or more representatives from each province.

2. The techniques were also explained to the assembled division superintendents at the Superintendents Convention.

3. Written instructions and specifications were mailed to the office of the division superintendent of each province.

The written instructions included specifications for the selection of teachers and pupils who were to participate. Instructions were also given for observing the activities and for rating them on "value to adult life" and "interest to child" on the basis of a scale of from zero (0), the lowest, to ten (10), the highest.

Returns from the Survey

Returns were received from forty-six of the forty-eight provinces of the Philippines. Each province observed two boys and two girls, a total of 186 children. The frequencies of the activities observed were 9,627 for boys and 10,828 for girls, making a total of 20,505 activities.

Classification and Organization of Data

Two methods of organizing the data were discussed and the following method was chosen.

The twenty-thousand activities were classified on the bases of three criteria under eleven major topics:

A. Health Activities and Physical Exercise
B. Home Activities
C. Running Errands
D. Industrial, Vocational and Pre-vocational Activities
E. Communication and Transportation
F. Play and Leisure Time Activities
G. Studying and Reading
H. School Activities (Other than formal instruction and lesson preparation)
I. Religious Activities

J. Human Relationships
K. Miscellaneous Minor Activities

Each of these larger topics was divided into activity areas which are more suitable to teaching units. Table V shows a list of forty-eight of these areas for boys and fifty-five areas of activity for girls, together with a code number for each.

The frequencies of the activities in each of the activity areas were compiled, and the mean ratings on their "value to adult life" and "interest to the child" were computed. These are shown in Table VI.

Table VII is divided into two sections; Section 1 shows patterns for groups of activity areas in which both sexes participate, and Section 2 shows patterns of activity areas in which either boys or girls participate to the practical exclusion of the opposite sex. These patterns are keys to groups of activity areas the mean ratings of which have similar patterns with respect to being above or below the midpoint for all means. Ratings above the midpoint are designated by a plus (+), and ratings below the midpoint are designated by a minus (-). A pattern which is rated above the midpoint for both girls and boys and both "value to adult life" and "interest to the child" is, therefore, designated by four plusses (++++).

Table VIII shows the code numbers of activity areas grouped according to the patterns in Table VII which their means follow.

Use of Tables V, VI, VII and VIII

Of the hundreds of questions that may be asked regarding these data, practically all can be classified into two general types:

A. Those questions which start with a known area or areas and seek information regarding the ratings on either or both criteria.

B. Those questions which start with some characteristic or characteristics of the mean ratings and seek to identify activity areas which possess those characteristics.

Illustrations of Type A questions are given in the study; a general rule for answering all questions of this type by means of Tables V and VI is presented; and the use of the rule is demonstrated by a sample application. Type B questions are illustrated in a similar manner. In this type of question Tables VII, VIII and V are used in the order mentioned.

A Tentative List of Areas of Child Experience as a Foundation for Curriculum Construction

A basic list of thirty-two areas of child activity is recommended as a foundation for the curriculum. This study describes the development of this tentative list; it shows the necessity for validating the activities from the standpoint of both the adult and the child and how provision may be made for adaptation to local environmental conditions.

Directing Child Experiences Toward Citizenship in a Changing World

A partial plan for giving purpose and direction to the areas of child activity is presented. The need for a philosophy of change is pointed out, and the necessity for taking into consideration the Philippine national ideal of an independent democracy is recognized. The steps which are being taken to provide the curriculum materials to meet those needs are described.

Summary

Chapter I is devoted to a brief sketch of some of the salient characteristics of the Philippine Islands and their people. The purpose of this chapter is to assist the reader who is unfamiliar with Philippine conditions to orient himself into the problem.

In Chapter II the problem is defined, and a list of experience areas, which have been validated by the criteria "value to adult life" and "interest to the child," is developed from the daily activities of children.

Chapter III presents an organization of the experience areas that will quickly and conveniently supply answers to questions which may reasonably be expected to arise regarding those data in a program of curriculum construction. This chapter also recommends as foundational material for the seventh grade curriculum a tentative list of thirty-two areas, which provides opportunity for a selection so that adaptation to environmental conditions may be made, and which allows experiences of a sufficiently wide scope to give reasonable assurance that the outcome will represent an understanding of the more important phases of life on this level.

The function of Chapter IV is to show how direction may be given to the experiences provided for in the foundational areas, by means of a philosophy and the study of social and economic problems, toward the national ideal of a politically and economically independent democracy; and to show the steps which have been taken to supply the materals necessary to attain this goal.

Viewed as a whole, this study presents the foundation and superstructure of a curriculum which starts with the culture and the life of the child as it is lived at present. It recognizes the necessity for adaptation to environmental conditions and for integrated learning, and provides for the fundamental habits, skills and knowledge, as well as for training in reflective thinking and creativeness. It shows how direction may be given to the curriculum through a philosophy and the study of social and economic problems toward the goal of trained citizenship in a democracy.

349. SANTIAGO, Alicia A. (Ed. D.). "A Study of the In-Service Education of Public Secondary School Teachers in Manila, Philippines." Indiana University, 1957. 379 pp. Source: DAI, XVIII, 2 (February, 1958), 515. XUM Order No. 24,838.

Alicia A. Santiago

Purpose

The purpose of this investigation was to make a study of what the public secondary school teachers in Manila were doing for professional improvement.

Method of Research

The normative-survey method of research was used in this study. A questionnaire form was filled out by 1,105 teachers.

Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn with respect to the findings of the study:

1. Various in-service activities generally recognized by authorities in the field of in-service education as having the most effective results were found to have been offered to the teachers by their schools. Most of these activities, however, were offered on a limited basis.

2. The extent of offering of in-service activities by the school determined largely the extent of the teachers' participation in these activities.

3. Several different techniques were utilized in the faculty meetings of the schools. However, techniques which involved cooperative action were rarely utilized.

4. The relatively extensive participation of teachers in faculty meetings and group conferences with supervisors was to a great degree required rather than voluntary participation.

5. Curriculum development appeared to have been a part of the teachers' in-service education, but the techniques that were utilized left much to be desired with respect to cooperative work among themselves.

6. The supervisory staff had a vital role in providing leadership for initiating in-service activities.

7. The teachers, with few exceptions, felt that they were not offered enough external incentives to encourage them to grow professionally.

8. Evaluation of teaching tended toward the use of cooperative methods which include the teachers whose teaching was being evaluated.

9. Evidence tended to show the importance of providing professional library facilities to the teachers.

10. Workshops and conventions or conferences, when offered, were fairly well participated in by the teachers.

11. The leadership of the Bureau of Public Schools in providing in-service activities to the teachers outside of their schools was found to be important.

12. Except for professional reading of books and membership in professional organizations, female teachers were either equal to or greater than male teachers in the degree of their participation in the various in-service activities inside and outside of their schools.

13. Teachers with one year of teaching experience were found to have participated least in almost all of the various in-service activities offered to them.

14. Marital status did not seem to be an identifying factor in the teachers' participation in in-service activities.

15. Although a majority of the teachers were of the opinion that a master's degree for high school teaching was important, there was a general feeling on the part of the teachers that the holding of this degree was not the final step in a teacher's professional growth.

16. More teachers believed in periodic additional training than in the holding of a master's degree as the ultimate qualifications for high school teaching.

17. Length of teaching experience was an identifying factor with respect to the teachers' opinions about frequency of additional training.

18. It was evidently recognized by most of the teachers that professional improvement was an integral part of their job.

19. The teachers' ratings of the various in-service activities included in this study were fairly high.

20. The showing of educational films to illustrate new methods in teaching was the most highly rated curriculum revision technique by the teachers but the least utilized technique in the program.

21. The lack of instruction materials and students' second-language difficulty were the most apparent problems among the teachers in general.

350. SANTOS, Bruno M. (Ed. D.). "An Analysis of the In-Service Training Needs and Participation in In-Service Training Programs by Teachers of Agricultural Schools of The Philippines." Michigan State University, 1961. 228 pp. Source: DAI, XXII, 6 (December, 1961), 1917. XUM Order No. 61-4983.

Purpose

To determine the in-service training needs, and the scope and participation by teachers of agricultural schools of the Philippines in in-service training programs.

Method

Data were obtained by means of questionnaires sent to teachers of 25 and administrators of 32 agricultural schools, and 7 teacher-training institutions.

Findings and Interpretations

Out of 27 items of need listed in the questionnaires the teachers rated 20 as critical with scale points of 3.0 or higher on a five-point scale. The range of needs was 15 to 24. Language teachers expressed the most and social science teachers the least number of needs. Grouped into areas and priority the needs were:

1. Research and experiments.
2. Subject matter content.
3. Methods.
4. Co-curricular activities.
5. General education.
6. Administration and supervision.

All areas were given scale points higher than 3.0, the midpoint on the scale.

Administrators and teachers were agreed as to the latter's need for in-service training. However, they disagreed on the priority of these needs.

The administrators expressed the need for in-service training in all the items listed in the questionnaires. The areas of needs were: administration, supervision, curriculum, guidance, and public relations.

Workshops, conferences, and demonstrations were the techniques commonly used in in-service programs.

Less than 3 teachers per school participated in one or more in-service training programs each year. Among the respondent teachers only two attended per year per school.

The participation by teachers and administrators in in-service programs was directly related to years of tenure up to 15 and 20 years, respectively, and inversely related thereafter. The number of in-service programs conducted by administrators was directly related to their participation in regional and national in-service training activities.

Limited opportunity, lack of funds, subject not in interest field, and family responsibilities were the important reasons why teachers had limited participation in in-service training activities. "Too busy with administrative duties" was the most important reason which limited the number of local in-service programs conducted by administrators.

In-service programs held in the past were judged as generally effective but inadequate and limited in scope.

Teacher-training institutions expressed willingness to cooperate with and assist the Bureau of Public Schools in providing in-service training activities for teachers.

Time, finance, and certain regulations appear to be the major sources of impediments limiting the number and frequency of in-service training activities provided and the participation by teachers in these programs.

351. SANTOS, Natividad Alejandre (Ed. D.). "Provisions for Critical Reading in Philippine Basal Readers: An Analysis of Reading Questions Based on a Classification Scheme of Cognitive Skills." Indiana University, 1968. 139 pp. Source: DAI, XXIX, 10A (April, 1969), 3344-A-3345-A. XUM Order No. 69-6771.

This study investigated:

1. The extent of provisions for critical reading in seven basal readers prescribed by the Philippine Board on Textbooks for reading instruction in grades three through six in Philippine public elementary schools.
2. The extent to which reading questions use varied ways in tapping critical reading skills.
3. The adequacy and reliability of a classification scheme developed for investigating reading questions at the elementary school level.

Six cognitive skills adopted from the *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Cognitive Domain* and from Sanders' taxonomy of classroom questions constitute the *Classification Scheme for Reading Questions* developed for this study. These skills are: Recall, Translation, Application, Analysis, Synthesis, and Evaluation. The scope and limits of each cognitive skill were defined by indicating the broad behavioral tasks involved and by enumerating "specific reading tasks" which illustrate use of the broad behavioral tasks. These "specific reading tasks" were based on a synthesis of critical reading skills selected to represent 443 critical reading skills cited by 39 reading experts, and of representative tasks required by reading questions found in seven basal readers and 20 reading workbooks.

The Classification Scheme for Reading Questions was considered adequate and reliable after submitting it to three trials in which three different groups of judges analyzed and classified a sample of reading questions. It was then used in examining and classifying 3,213 reading questions found in seven basal readers. The critical reading skills elicited were recorded in terms of the six cognitive skills, and the extent to which the reading questions used varied ways in eliciting each cognitive skill was recorded in terms of the "specific reading tasks" listed under each cognitive skill. Data gathered were converted into percentage and used in two chi square tests.

Results showed that all of the six cognitive skills exemplified in the classification scheme used were elicited in all of the books analyzed, but in varying amounts of emphasis. Recall questions were overemphasized, while Evaluation questions were significantly lacking. No book gave equal emphasis to the six cognitive skills in a single volume; no cognitive skill received equal emphasis over grade levels. The reading questions used a very limited variety of ways in tapping each cognitive skill. The Classification Scheme for Reading Questions proved adequate and reliable for investigating reading questions at the elementary level.

Judging by the disproportionate distribution of the reading questions in favor of Recall, it may be inferred that while the development of rational power is recognized as an essential objective of instruction in Philippine elementary education:

1. There was no evidence that the development of thinking skills was considered in the preparation and distribution of reading questions in the books analyzed.

2. Comprehension seemed to be equated with the production of verbatim responses.

3. The "Criteria for Textbook Selection" used by the Philippine Board on Textbooks does not provide for an evaluation of the kinds of questions asked.

In line with these findings and conclusions are areas of concern which need investigation: teachers' awareness of the limitations of questions asked in textbooks and their proficiency in compensating for these inadequacies, the optimum presentation and distribution of questions that would promote growth in critical reading and critical thinking, the types of selections that lend themselves to questions which elicit higher-level cognitive skills, and use of the Classification Scheme for Reading Questions in developing, improving, and evaluating printed instructional materials.

352. SANTOS, Rolando Arquiza (Ph. D.). "An Analysis of Selected Programs for the Preparation of Secondary School Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages." George Peabody College for Teachers, 1961. 283 pp. Source: DAI, XXII, 8 (February, 1962), 2710-2711. XUM Order No. 61-5827.

The objectives of this study were:

1. To investigate what is being done in selected American colleges and universities in preparing secondary school teachers of modern foreign languages.

2. To incorporate appropriate aspects of these programs in proposing improvements in the program for preparing secondary school teachers of modern foreign languages of Xavier University, Cagayan City, Philippines.

To achieve the first objective, personal interviews were conducted with persons directly connected with the programs of thirteen American colleges and universities. The policies, practices, facilities, and personnel of these programs were evaluated in terms of the seven criteria (aural understanding, speaking, reading, writing, language analysis, culture, and professional preparation) named by the Modern Language Association of America.

Based on the conclusions drawn from the analyses of the findings, a number of commendations and recommendations were made. The following recommendations were made, in accordance with the second objective of this study, for the improvement of Xavier University's program for preparing secondary school teachers of modern foreign languages.

1. With the present demand for Spanish teachers in the Philippine high schools and because of the important role that Xavier University plays in Philippine education, the University should give serious consideration to preparing high school teachers of Spanish.

2. The University should provide language laboratory facilities for students of Tagalog and Spanish to supplement their classroom use of these languages. If separate laboratory facilities cannot be installed, a schedule should be made whereby students of Tagalog and Spanish will be able to use the laboratory facilities that the English students use.

3. More use should be made of audio-visual aids in the classrooms. Persons who have traveled in or come from countries where the foreign language being studied is spoken should be invited in as resource persons. Printed materials should be requested from the American and Spanish embassies, and other local cultural resources utilized.

4. Scholarship possibilities for sending promising students of English and Spanish to study and travel abroad should be studied, with a view to making such opportunities available extensively.

5. In teaching the beginning courses in Spanish, emphasis should be given to the development of the auraloral skills of the students as well as to the teaching of grammar and translation.

6. Courses in the civilization of English and Spanish speaking peoples should be offered to enable the language student to study systematically the people whose language he is studying.

353. SAPAULA, Crispina C. (Ph. D.). "The Prestige Variable in Sociocultural Change in the Philippines: 1565-1898." Indiana University, 1966. 151 pp. Source: DAI, XXVII, 10B (April, 1967), 3380-B. XUM Order No. 67-3708.

In contact situations, self-images involving superiority-inferiority, domination-subordination, or power and weakness are projected by the cultures in contact. Significantly, the agents of contact need careful analysis and evaluation. The impact of these selected agents in effecting change can be equated with the prestige they hold as well as the prestige value of the intended change to the recipients. To be acceptable, the introduced sociocultural change must not lower the prestige status or prestige situation of the recipients. Preferably the change should elevate the prestige situation of the receiver.

In contact situations involving Filipino-Chinese and Filipino-Spanish cultures the attempt has been made to illustrate that the prestige variable was the heart of sociocultural change in the Philippines from prehispanic times till the termination of Spanish rule in the islands. The prestige variable directly outweighed other variables in leading the indigenous people to accept change.

Historically, China has a longer contact with the Philippines than has Spain, yet the impact of Chinese culture is of a negligible degree on the culture of the Filipinos. Comparatively, Spain has a shorter period of contact yet the impact of her culture has an enduring effect on the culture of the native people.

On examination of accounts pertaining to early contact situations of the Philippines, it will immediately be gleaned that Chinese merchants had traded with the archipelago long before the Christian era. The traders represented a civilization far advanced in comparison to the local culture. In many, many aspects, Chinese civilization presented apparent opportunities for penetration. If Chinese civilization failed to take hold in the Philippines, the reason must be sought beyond the points of contact.

Regardless of how deeply the traders were imbued with Chinese traditions, they themselves could not carry Chinese institutions. To start with, their own position in China was an inferior one. Nearly all of the traders and immigrants came from small coastal areas that were geographically and linguistically isolated from the main centers of Chinese civilization. The majority of the Chinese immigrants came from the uneducated classes in China.

For the Chinese trader and immigrant, the objective was always trade. The influence they had in the Philippines was and is economic rather than social or political. While they intermarried freely in the country, built good homes, taught their families better ways of living, they were not interested in converting or spreading new ideas among the native folk.

In contrast, the Spaniards possessed a culturally associated prestige. They brought not only a new doctrine but also education which the natives themselves regarded as desirable. In the natives' valuation, Christianity was the religion of the Spaniards, and they related the new power over them to the literacy of the missionaries. It became increasingly clear that the missionaries held the key to the advantages of education. Education became a prestige symbol since literacy satisfied many hopes and aspirations. It brought demonstrable rewards in the form of well-paying employment, and the accompanying prestige accrued to those who had this instrument of power. The Filipinos observed that those who could read and write did no or very little manual labor and enjoyed prestige status as well as higher remuneration.

It was to be expected that Spanish colonization would bring about new social standards which were regarded as an improvement over the previously existing ones. The Spaniards, whether administrators or missionaries, inevitably played a major part in the identification of Christianity with social privilege and prestige.

Filipino sociocultural change and transformation can be seen as an historical adaptation to new conditions of life. Adaptations proceeded through modification of the traditional institutions and their combination with Spanish cultural values. The rate of sociocultural change was correlated with the degree of prestige the change brought about.

The Filipinos got their hispanization in relatively small, slow doses and, consequently, they were apparently better able to digest what they wanted, and to revise and adapt to their liking what was not so attractive. Their hispanization for the most part was an orderly procedure taken gradually over a long period of time. It is also apparent that there was little culture change in the Philippines that was not associated with the prestige variable. Cultural influences tended to remain ineffective unless they were connected with conditions that hold prestige.

354. SAQUIDO, Rizalina Duran (Ph. D.). "A Program for the Mentally Retarded in the Philippines." St. Louis University, 1967. 147 pp. Source: DAI, XXVIII, 8A (February, 1968), 2961-A. XUM Order No. 68-1291.

The purpose of this dissertation has been to plan and propose a hypothetical model to serve as a guideline for establishing a primary school program for educable mentally retarded children in the Philippines. It is hoped that the present study will be the beginning of future developments and that it will give impetus to research in this specialized field.

The proposed program, which would entail the partial integration of educable mentally retarded children in regular grades, was prepared after the related special education literature had been reviewed, existing programs for mentally retarded studied, and personal interviews conducted with the graduate committee members and with administrators of programs for the mentally retarded. As a result of the aforementioned efforts, it was concluded that while the educational program in the United States might seem workable in the Philippines, it could only be utilized in a modified form, for the racial, cultural, and socioeconomic factors within the Philippines would demand certain revisions.

This study was made in the light of Kirk's (1962) definition that the educable mentally retarded child is one who has potentialities for development in minimum educability in academic subjects, that he has the capacity to adjust socially to such a degree that he can get along independently in the community, and that he can achieve a minimum occupational adequacy which would later enable him to support himself partially or totally at the adult level.

Guided by the above concept and aim, a program for educable mentally retarded with four general objectives was discussed. These objectives were: self-realization, social competence, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility. A curriculum guide was prepared in the light of these four general objectives. Suggestions for teaching techniques and audiovisual materials were made, taking into consideration the salient characteristics of retarded children.

Though it was not within the scope of this study to establish a teacher training program, some suggestions were proposed: the expansion of the summer education program for teachers of exceptional children offered by the Bureau of Public Schools, inservice training of regular teachers, special education courses or inservice training conducted by correspondence for those regular teachers in distant islands, and the inclusion (within the curriculum of public and private teacher training schools) of an introductory or survey course on exceptional children.

355. SARANGANI, Datumanong Ampaso (Ed. D.). "An Exploratory Analysis of Student, Faculty, and Administrative

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Staff Goal Perceptions at the Mindanao State University, Philippines." State University of New York at Albany, 1981. 198 pp. Source: DAI, XLII, 6A (December, 1981), 2530-A. XUM Order No. 8118214.

This study was conducted to determine goal perceptions among students, faculty, and administrative staff members of the Mindanao State University, Philippines. Goal perceptions were initiated through a self-developed goal inventory questionnaire, and were measured according to the respondents' view of goal clarity, goal importance, and resource commitment to goals. Three research questions guided the study.

The first research question was raised to determine the extent of goal perceptions among respondents in the goal categories of clarity, importance, and resource commitment. The statistical mean score $(\bar{X})$ was used as the index of goal perception to answer this research question. The second research question explored significant differences among respondents in their perceptions of goal clarity, goal importance, and resource commitment to goals. Three operating hypotheses were tested to answer this research question, using the stepwise multiple regression procedure. The third research question explored significant relationships between perceptions of goal clarity, goal importance, resource commitment to goals and the age, sex, ethnolinguistic origin, religious affiliation, and bureaucratic role orientation of respondents. The stepwise multiple regression procedure was also used to test three operating hypotheses to answer this research question.

The findings of the study indicate that repondents tend to perceive goals to be of moderate clarity to them, of moderate importance to the institution, and given low support by the institution toward their achievement. When significant differences in goal perceptions among respondents were explored in all three goal categories, the findings were the following:

1. Respondents tend to differ significantly in their per-

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ceptions of goal clarity and resource commitment to goals (p.>.01).

2. No significant differences among respondents were observed in their perceptions of goal importance.

The findings also indicate that when the personal characteristics of respondents were treated as separate variables in a multiple regression procedure, only the ethnolinguistic origin and religious affiliation of respondents appeared to have significant bearings (p.>.05) in the latter's perceptions of goal importance. These two personal characteristics, however, together with age, sex, and bureaucratic role orientation do not play significant roles in the respondents' perceptions of goal clarity and resource commitment to goals. The findings further show that when all the personal characteristics were treated as one set of variables, in a multiple regression procedure, they do not strongly affect the respondents' perceptions of goal clarity, goal importance, and resource commitment to goals.

356. SATENTES, Marcelo Pusa (Ed. D.). "Study of the Factors Related to Teacher Morale in Five School Districts in the Province of Cotabato, Philippines." University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, 1974. 154 pp. Source: DAI, XXXV, 6A (December, 1974), 3361-A-3362-A. XUM Order No. 74-26,933.

The questions to which the study were addressed were:

1. In what aspects of the personal and situational factors do central and barrio school teachers differ?

2. Do central and barrio school teachers differ with respect to morale?

3. Do central and barrio school teachers differ with respect to their perceptions of the professional leadership of their principals or supervisors?

4. Do central and barrio school teachers differ in their morale with respect to selected personal and situational factors?

5. Is teacher perception of the professional leadership of his/her principal or supervisor related to morale?

The data gathering instruments used were:

1. The Personal and Situational Data Questionnaire.

2. Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire.

3. The Purdue Teacher Opinionaire which was revised for purposes of this study.

To test the hypotheses derived from the research questions, the chi square statistics, analysis of variance and the multiple correlation in step-wise entry were used.

Findings were as follows:

1. Although barrio and central school teachers differed in many aspects of their personal and socio-economic characteristics, they did not differ in their mean morale scores except on two dimensions of morale, namely: Rapport among Teachers and School Facilities and Service. This finding led to the conclusion that not all socio-economic and personal conditions of a neighborhood school or attendance area are significant variables to teacher morale.

2. Teachers who had teaching as their first occupational choice regardless of the school they were assigned scored high in morale compared to those teachers who did not have teaching as their first occupational choice. The assumption, that morale is an outpost related to the teacher's mental and emotional attitude towards the components of the job and that his orientation and motive in getting into that job will be a factor interacting with these job components, ap-

peared to have received strong support from this study.

3. There was no difference in the perceptions of barrio and central school teachers of the leadership behavior of their principals or supervisors.

4. The teachers classified according to school districts differed on the following dimensions of teacher morale: Rapport with Principal or Supervisor, Satisfaction with Teaching, Rapport among Teachers, Teacher Salary, Teacher Status, Community Support of Education and Curriculum Issues. The teachers by school districts differed in their perceptions on the leadership behavior of their principals or supervisors. This suggests, among other things, that the leadership behavioral styles of the principals or supervisors are related to the morale of the teachers.

5. Although leadership behavior is strongly related to morale it is not the sole determinant. The strong influence of leadership on morale is involved with morale dimensions: Rapport with Principal or Supervisor; Rapport among Teachers; Satisfaction with Teaching; Teacher Status; and Curriculum Issues. Corroborating this conclusion were the results of the regression analysis. Most of the variance in the relationship between leader behavior and morale could be accounted from the five morale dimensions mentioned above. It is possible, however, from the findings of this study that the leader behavior instrument may be measuring similar or the same constructs as those of the morale dimensions just mentioned. So that one would expect to get essentially the same results from using the items of the dimensions as he would using all 100 items representing the ten dimensions.

6. Of the two factors of leader behavior, Consideration is more substantially associated with teacher morale.

357. SAVILLE, Margaret Rose (Ph. D.). "Individual and Group Risk Taking: A Cross-Cultural Study." University of Hawaii, 1970. 193 pp. Source: DAI, XXXI, 8A

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(February, 1971), 4268-A. XUM Order No. 71-4949.

The aim of the present investigation was two-fold:

a. To test the generality of the risky-shift phenomenon in non-Western as well as Western cultures.

b. To test the plausibility of Brown's (1965) value of risk hypothesis (that the risky-shift phenomenon is in part determined by the extent to which problems engage cultural values) in two ways:

    i. Between cultures, deriving predictions concerning the value of risk from sociological and anthropological sources.

    ii. Within cultures, by an examination of risk taking in relation to the evaluation of risk related concepts on several semantic differential scales.

Two hundred forty senior high school boys from large city high schools in Japan, the Philippines, and Australia served as subjects for the experiment. Subjects first responded to semantic differential scales in a large group testing session. On subsequent days, second testing sessions comprised small group testing (5 persons per group) in which subjects first made individual decisions on each problem, followed by group discussion to consensus of each problem. Control groups were also employed in which individual decisions were made on two occasions one week apart. These procedures followed the basic experimental paradigm proposed by Wallach, Kogan, & Bem (1962). Risk scores were derived from 6 of the 12 Choice Dilemmas problems (Kogan & Wallach, 1964) judged to be relevant to the cultures studied.

Results indicated:

a. Limited generality of the risky shift phenomenon in both Japan and the Philippines. Australian data indicated significant shifts to risk on some problems, and significant shifts to conservatism on others. In addition, some problems failed to reveal shifts in either direction.

Margaret Rose Saville

b. i. That tests of Brown's hypothesis between cultures provided only partial support for experimental hypotheses tested. Although the culture x problems interaction for initial decisions was highly significant ($p<.005$), examination of the basis of the interaction indicated that Australian results were the prime determiners of this effect. Australian subjects were significantly more risky ($p<.05$ and $p<.01$) on some problems, and tended to be more conservative ($p<.10$) on some problems, than Japanese and Filipino subjects.

ii. Within culture tests of Brown's hypothesis were performed only for Japanese and Australian subjects. Again, results only partially confirmed experimental hypotheses. Indications were that Australian high value of risk subjects more frequently ($p<.01$) made risky initial decisions than did low value of risk subjects. Similar analyses of Japanese data failed to reveal any significant differences.

Additional analyses of the data revealed that the strength or salience of cultural values was an important determinant of both the direction and magnitude of group shifts during discussion. Other indicators among the Japanese and Filipino data suggested the possible importance of social situational factors, particularly in the Philippines. Results of the investigation were discussed in terms of these additional findings, with special reference to Zajonc's (1966) notion of social facilitation and Brown's (1965) risk as a value hypothesis. The importance of situational factors was discussed in terms of recent evidence (Gallimore, 1969). Implications of the present findings for future research were indicated throughout the discussion.

358. SCHWARTZ, Karl James (Ph. D.). "The Pongyi-Tsaya/Padre-Maestro Complex: Epistemology and Pedagogy in Buddhist Burma and the Catholic Philippines." University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1975. 134 pp. Source: DAI,

Karl James Schwartz

XXXVI, 9A (March, 1976), 5657-A. XUM Order No.

75-28,021.

It is commonly assumed that schools reflect the social, political or economic structures of a society. Using the schools of Burma and the Philippines between 1800 and 1850 as examples, this study challenges the ability of this assumption to explain educational differences and creates a counter-thesis. It argues that pedagogy reflects epistemology; that the content, methods, personnel and structures of teaching can be logically related to the nature and grounds of knowledge.

The approach to analysis and explanation adopted in this study follows that proposed by Eugene J. Meehan, *Explanation in Social Science: A System Paradigm* (Dorsey Press, 1968). Data were gathered from autobiographical materials, official reports (government and missionary) and the accounts of European travelers in and residents of Burma and the Philippines. Description focused upon:

a. The social positions and personal attributes of teachers.

b. The subjects taught and the sequence in which they were studied.

c. Methods of teaching and learning.

d. The organization of classrooms and the administration of schools.

The major differences between Burmese and Philippine pedagogy can be summarized as follows:

1. Laymen played a greater role in the religious instruction of youth in the Philippines than in Burma.

2. As subjects, morality and sacred history were of greater importance in Burma than in the Philippines; grammar and rhetoric, on the other hand, were of greater importance in the Philippines than in Burma.

3. Burmese pedagogues relied most heavily upon examples

to illustrate their teachings; Philippine pedagogues, upon reasoned discourse and debate to demonstrate their points.

4. And, conversely, more was demanded of Philippine students in terms of creation and synthesis than of Burmese pupils.

In the final chapter, it is argued that these differences are linked to:

a. The contrasting roles of experience and logic in the verification of Buddhist and Catholic (Thomist) knowledge.

b. Differences between assumptions of Buddhist and Thomist philosophy regarding the relationship of the knowing subject to the known object.

The findings of this study do not warrant the conclusion that Burmese and Philippine pedagogues created curricula, selected methods, or organized classrooms according to explicit epistemological criteria. Nevertheless, they do suggest that epistemology offers a reasonable, albeit theoretical, explanation of their choices and of the differences between Burmese and Philippine pedagogy.

359. SEGOVIA, Agripino Cana (Ph. D.). "An Investigation of Faculty and Administrators' Perception of Faculty's Involvement in Institutional Governance in Selected Seventh-Day Adventist Colleges in the United States and the Philippines: A Cross-Cultural Study." University of Iowa, 1973. 343 pp. Source: DAI, XXXV, 1A (July, 1974), 144-A. XUM Order No. 74-16,686.

Problem

The study aimed to determine the involvement of the faculty in institutional governance in selected Seventh-day Adventist (SDA) colleges in the United States (US) and the Philippines (RP). Three aspects of the problem were explored, namely:

1. The faculty's perceptions of their actual and ideal role in decision making.

2. The administrators' perceptions of the faculty's actual and ideal roles.

3. The differences between the US faculty and administrators and their RP counterparts in their perception of the faculty's role.

Procedure

A survey questionnaire was sent to two SDA colleges in the US and also to two RP SDA colleges. The survey instrument was identical for both faculty and administrators. This was done at the close of the school year 1971-72.

The returned usable questionnaires showed that 70.0 percent of the US administrators responded and 77.0 percent of the US faculty. From the RP colleges, 90.0 percent of the administrators and 86.0 percent of the faculty responded.

Four hypotheses were examined:

1. There is a significant difference between the faculty's perceptions of its actual role from its ideal concept in college governance processes among the US and RP college personnel.

2. The faculty in the US and RP perceive their role to be significantly different from their respective administrators.

3. There is a significant difference in perceptions between the US and RP faculty in their perceptions of the faculty's role.

4. There is a significant difference between the US and RP administrators in their perceptions of the faculty's role in decision making.

For statistical analysis the chi-square as a test of independence was used in the study.

Findings

The respondents' perceptions were categorized in four decision categories:

1. Unilateral
2. Recommendatory
3. Participatory
4. Non-participatory

Fifteen role functions were used as bases of comparison.

There was no significant difference in the US faculty's role perception in its actual and ideal practice; however, this was not true of the RP faculty. There were also marked differences and similarities between the US and RP faculty in the faculty's concept of its role. High chi-square values were noted in the US and RP comparison for the fifteen functions. Also noted were differences and similarities between the US administrators and their RP counterpart. High chi-square values were noted in nine functions.

A small number of faculty in both US and RP felt that they have unilateral decisions in only a few functions. In personnel matters, the faculty role was recommendatory while in the academic matters the faculty role was participatory.

In financial affairs, the faculty role was recommendatory, whereas in student affairs the faculty role was participatory. This trend is the same in the public relations area.

Recommendations

Faculty representatives should be appointed as members of the college board and also of the executive board with full voting privileges.

A faculty forum should be organized as the official faculty body which may recommend to the administrators programs which the faculty would like to undertake and also to provide the administrators with the official feedback of their administrative performance.

Faculty members should find greater support from the administrators in engaging in public or community service.

360. SEIBERT, Robert Franklin (Ph. D.). "Changes in the Socio-Economic Composition of the Philippine House of Representatives (1946-1965) as Indicators of Political Development." Tulane University, 1969. 327 pp. Source: DAI, XXX, 10A (April, 1970), 4522-A. XUM Order No. 70-6427.

The aim of the dissertation was to gain insight into the progress of the Philippines toward the realization of a developed democratic political system. This was done by analyzing the changes in the socioeconomic composition of the Philippine House of Representatives for 1946, 1957, and 1965.

To facilitate analysis, a democratic model was employed. This model, a political parallel of classic market economics, can be described as an archetype of pluralist democracy. Here, development was conceived of in terms of increasing political secularization, institutional and role differentiation, universalistic patterns of identification, and achievemental recruitment criteria. These combine to promote succeedingly broader bases of inclusion in the representative bodies.

Following similar research efforts, we analyzed both the social profiles and the career patterns of the legislators. Special emphasis was placed on the analysis of the career patterns in view of the fact that this aspect of socialization and recruitment has been marginally treated in previous analyses of Philippine elite structure. Variables were cross-tabulated and association was measured by correlation techniques.

Our research on the social profile variables substantiated past research findings. The social origins were essentially privileged in character, with extensive financial resources backgrounds predominating. A strong regional bias in recruitment was apparent, and physical mobility was minimal. Modernizing trends were apparent at the primary level of education, but private, sectarian education predominated at the secondary level. At the college level, financial resources correlated strongly with school prestige, although the University of the Philippines reduced this emphasis by producing a number of legislators from middle and lower class origins. Our examination of the social profiles of legislators affirmed the dominance of the upper class in the elite structure of the House, leading us to the conclusion that many of these variables constituted the machinery or institutions whereby traditional political behavior was reinforced and continued.

The examination of the career patterns provided us with data suggesting that important stylistic changes were taking place within the career and occupational experiences of the elite. From 1946 to 1965, there were consistent increases in occupational differentiation. Traditional occupations lost ground to entrepreneurial occupations. The aggregate career patterns showed increasingly achievemental activity, even for legislators with predominately ascriptive social profiles. These trends suggest real progress in the realization of the democratic goal and emphasize the need and value of including career data in elite analysis.

361. SENSENIG, Trinidad Laya (Ph. D.). "The Development of Normative Understanding: A Study of Filipino Youth." Cornell University, 1978. 306 pp. Source: DAI, XXXIX, 1B (July, 1978), 449-B. XUM Order No. 7809518.

The main question we attempted to answer was: What are the factors that affect the development of the understanding of the concepts of obligation, prohibition, and permission? In other words, what are the demographic, psychological, inter-personal, and language variables that influence the understanding of norm concepts in the context of action?

Trinidad Laya Sensenig

Rules are an important part of everyday life. Until recently, though, little attention has been focused on how people interpret rules or norms, whether there is a developmental pattern in learning normative concepts, or what variables may influence this type of learning. This interdisciplinary area may be subsumed under cognitive and social psychology, and logical and moral development in particular.

The Subjects in the study were 1565 10-, 13-, and 16-year-olds and college students from four areas in the Philippines: Manila City, Quezon, Ilocos Norte, and Ifugao Provinces. The instruments consisted of the Norm Competence Test 3 and the Background Questionnaire 3. The NCT3 (forms L and M) is made up of 42 items most of which were Weisbrod's (1971) items. The test was constructed based on a "deep structure diagram" derived from von Wright's (1963) formulation of deontic logic. Basically, it attempted to measure the level of understanding of equivalent and different phrasings of rules of a game called Cannonball. Two subtests examined the understanding of identities phrasing (e.g., "must," "ought to"), and three tested knowledge of relationships among norm concepts, the deep structure diagram (e.g., "must" is incompatible with "must not," "must" implies "are allowed to"). Four sets of summary scores were used as indicators of norm competence. The Background Questionnaire 3 incorporated the independent variables. The demographic set consisted of age, socio-economic status, urban/rural residence, and sex. The psychological and social psychological set was made up of mental ability, cooperation and reciprocity relations with a friend or mother, subordination/superordination, and participation in school activities. Family structure referred to sibling structure, responsibility for siblings, and Hawaiian vs. Eskimo types of family organization. Languages chosen were Tagalog, Ilocano, and English--the latter spoken by the Ifugaos. Both measures were back translated.

Test reliability alpha of the NCT3 ranged from .64 to .72 calculated by age. Content validity was ensured by including a set of items that were taken to represent the concepts in the deontic domain. Twenty-six cases (1.66%) were discarded because of incomplete questionnaires.

The data indicate the gradual learning of the deep structure diagram and a very slow unlearning of relationships among norm concepts that are not stipulated by deontic logic. The order of difficulty of norm concepts seems to be: Obligation to do, Obligation to forbear, Permission to do, and Permission to forbear. Performing stepwise multiple regressions by age and for the total sample using the NCT3 summary scores as dependent variables and the Background Questionnaire 3 variables as predictors, we found a set of predictors that persistently received significant beta-weights: intelligence, reciprocity and cooperation with a friend, cooperation with mother, and (negative) is always a follower. Of secondary importance were reciprocity with mother, number of activities, spending most time with peers or younger children, and being a Tagalog speaker. What we find are consistent and persistent relationships between normative competence and a subset of predictor variables. In effect, it is probably in situations characterized by interaction among equals or by opportunities for role-taking that we find the greatest norm learning. A program to stimulate normative competence was outlined.

This study extends our knowledge of normative learning as well as cognitive and social development by specifying the deontic system of Filipino youth and the social experiences that stimulate normative understanding.

362. SHAHAN, James Buhl (Ph. D.). "American Colonial Administration in the Western Pacific: A Study in Civil-Military Relations." Ohio State University, 1950. 335 pp. Source: Eells, p. 212; and Ohio State University, ABSTRACTS OF DOCTORAL DISSERTATIONS (Summer, 1950-51), pp. 481-486.

This study is concerned with the military and political aspects of American colonial administration in the western Pacific. Four areas are included: the Philippines, Guam, American Samoa, and the Trust Territory. With the exception of American Samoa, each of these areas was taken by American military forces, and American Samoa has been under the administration of the Navy for the last half-century. Certain other Pacific areas, such as the Hawaiian Islands, are not included in the study. The reason for this omission is that the Hawaiian Islands, which formally annexed themselves to the United States in August, 1898, were immediately organized into a territory of the United States. Accordingly, Hawaii presents no question of military administration pertinent to this study.

Several minor American possessions in the western Pacific, such as Wake and Midway islands, are likewise excluded. While they have strategic value, particularly as air bases, and have been under naval control, they have insufficient native population to warrant their inclusion in the study. In addition to these areas, certain islands of the western Pacific now under the control of American military forces are also excluded. These islands were Japanese possessions and their legal status remains undetermined until a peace treaty with Japan is completed. They include Okinawa and the Bonin Islands.

The plan of this study involves an examination of:

1. Some of the military and political aspects of American colonial administration in the Philippine Islands, including some postwar problems facing the Philippine Republic.

2. The Navy's administration of Guam since 1898.

3. The administration of American Samoa and the newly acquired Trust Territory, including pertinent problems arising from the transfer of these islands from the jurisdiction of the Navy to the Department of the Interior.

4. Some critical observations concerning the successes and failure of the program of colonial administration in the western Pacific.

The first area of the study, the Philippines, constitutes the largest island group in the Malay Archipelago, with a total land area of 114,830 square miles and a population of approximately 20,000,000. The United States acquired these islands in 1898, when a peace treaty was signed which ended the Spanish-American War. The American Army remained in the islands for three years longer, however, to put down the Filipino forces of insurrection led by General Aguinaldo. From the beginning of the Philippine occupation, American policy has been directed toward preparing the Filipino people for independence, as the public utterances of Presidents William McKinley, Theodore Roosevelt, William Howard Taft, and others, indicate.

The Philippines passed through several stages of political development before independence could become a reality. The first form of American government in the islands was purely of a military character. This gave way to civil administration when a Philippine Commission, appointed by the President, arrived in the islands in the summer of 1900. This Commission was unable to function adequately, however, until a condition of peace and order was restored.

In the first few years of Commission rule its powers expanded, while the powers of the Military Governor diminished. A Philippine legislature came into being in 1907. The Philippine Commission constituted the upper branch of that body, and a popularly elected Assembly constituted the lower branch. The powers of the Commission decreased as more responsibility was assumed by the Assembly. The Filipino people assumed an increasing voice in the Commission also. By 1913, in Woodrow Wilson's administration, they constituted a majority of that body. With the passage of the Jones Law in 1916, the Commission was abolished and an elective bicameral legislative body was created. In 1934, Congress passed the Tydings-McDuffie Act which granted complete independence to the Philippines, effective in 1946.

Although the Filipinos acquired a measure of political experience during American administration of the islands, they were not completely prepared for economic and military independence. Their economy was largely dependent upon trade with the United States, and they were not strong enough militarily to withstand invasion by an aggressor with the strength of the Japanese forces which overran the islands in World War II. Since that war, the United States has taken a number of steps to bolster the economy of the

Republic of the Philippines and strengthen her defenses. Nevertheless, many problems remain, including the control of the Hukbalahap guerrilla forces in Central Luzon. The Philippine Republic, under the leadership of President Quirino, has assumed a leading role in the movement for the creation of a Pacific Union to ensure the continued independence of the newly created states in southeast Asia.

Turning to Guam, one finds it quite natural that the Navy rather than the Army should assume responsibility for administration there. Guam is the largest island of the Mariana group, although it is only 225 square miles in area and has a native population of less than 30,000. For several months after its capture by American naval forces in 1898, no effort was made to exercise jurisdiction over the island, pending the outcome of the Philippine engagement. Shortly afterward, however, the Navy was given responsibility for Guam since it could be used as a refueling station for naval vessels. Since 1898, the island has remained under naval rule, but is now being transferred to the control of the Department of the Interior.

Naval rule was interrupted in 1941, when the Japanese invaded the island. Guam remained under the control of Japanese forces until American reoccupation in July, 1944. Then, for a period of almost two years, the island's administration was under American military government, administered by the Navy. In 1946, naval control of the prewar type was resumed. Since then, Guam's government has been administered by a naval officer appointed by the president. Although the governor was invested with legislative as well as executive and judicial powers, the gradual emergence of the Guam Congress has tended to limit his legislative power. At first, Guam's legislative body was purely an advisory organ. However, in 1948, it was granted much legislative authority. The Guam Congress can now pass a measure over the governor's veto and have it referred to the Secretary of the Navy for final action. Despite the centralization of authority which has been in the hands of the governor, naval administration on Guam has not been inconsiderate of the rights and welfare of the people, and an excellent job has been done in such areas of government as public health, sanitation, public works, and education.

The Navy's control of the island's administration has not been without criticism, however. Guam has been the only territory taken over from Spain in 1898 which has not been granted local self-government, and with the exception of American Samoa, is the only overseas possession of the United States which has been denied the same. Some critics of naval rule have charged that the Guamanians have not had liberty under law. In 1931, Guam's governor promulgated a Bill of Rights for the people, but these rights did not receive the legal sanction of the United States Congress. Moreover, the United States Congress has been extremely slow in granting American citizenship to the people of Guam, and in enacting an organic law for the island. In 1950, however, Congress finally has taken action in the form of the Peterson Bill, which was passed by the House on May 23, 1950, and the Senate on July 26, 1950. Accordingly, it can be said that Guam is well on the road to local self-government.

Turning now to American Samoa and the Trust Territory: American Samoa is a small Pacific island area, approximately one-third the size of Guam and with less than two-thirds the population of Guam. It includes the island of Tutuila and other islands of the Samoan group east of longitude 171° west of Greenwich. The Trust Territory, which covers some three million square miles in the western Pacific, includes the islands of the Marshalls, Carolines, and the Marianas (except Guam). It has about three times the combined land area of Guam and American Samoa, but is only slightly larger in population.

The people of American Samoa are not as well prepared for self-government as the people of Guam since the ancient Samoan pattern of life, particularly the *matai* concept of local administration, makes difficult the introduction of new political methods. While the United States secured the islands in 1899 as a result of a three power treaty between Great Britain, Germany, and the United States, the High Chiefs of the islands of Tutuila and Aunu'u "voluntarily ceded" these islands to the United States on April 17, 1900. The High Chiefs of the Manu'a island group ceded their islands four years later. The important role played by the High Chiefs, in ceding the area to the United States, has helped them to maintain their influence and retain the *matai* concept of authority. The Navy has made only slight modifications in this system and has woven reforms around the existing pattern rather than replacing it with a plan of operation unknown to the people of the islands.

In the fields of education, public works, and public health, however, the Navy has not hesitated to make reforms. In fact, a good school system based upon American standards of organization and control has been built up. In the field of public health, a vigorous effort has been made to uproot "bush medicine" with its barbaric practices and to institute modern medical and preventive measures. In general, the Navy plan of organizing government on American Samoa follows the system used on Guam, particularly in the establishment of administrative departments. There is some similarity in the court structure also. Although American Samoa's legislature has not developed so fully as Guam's legislative body, this lag in development is due primarily to the fact that the matai system does not recognize the individual as the basic unit of political life. The creation of a bicameral legislative body in American Samoa in 1948 is evidence of progress, but a more definite break from the matai concept is needed before American Samoa's legislature can function on a democratic basis.

The people of the Trust Territory are less fitted to assume the responsibilities of self-rule than either the Guamanians or the Samoans. While Guam and American Samoa have been under the control of the United States for the last half-century, the Trust Territory was first occupied by American troops during World War II, and in 1947 was turned over to the United States as a strategic mandate under the authority of the United Nations Security Council. As a result, the Navy has been in the Trust islands less than a decade. The Trust Territory is confronted with many problems which do not exist in Guam or in American Samoa, particularly the problems of transportation and communication. Differences of culture, language, customs, and training increase the difficulties of establishing a central government for the whole area. Nevertheless, present plans contemplate the transfer of both American Samoa and the Trust Territory to civil control in July, 1951.

By way of conclusion, several observations are made. The first of these is that in virtually every instance American military forces have assumed governmental responsibilities in the western Pacific because of the exigencies of war. As a second point, the governments established in Guam, American Samoa, and in the Philippines during the early part of American occupation have been of a military character, based upon the war powers of the president, as set forth in the Constitution.

It can be said, in the third place, that while American military administration in the western Pacific has been quite successful in some fields--such as public health, sanitation, public works, education, et cetera--several shortcomings are also to be noted. The principal criticism which can be made is that naval rule has not been conducive to democratic self-rule, as it is known at home. This is particularly noticeable in American Samoa where naval administration has not prepared the people for self-rule and has tolerated the continuance of an ancient, undemocratic system of local government. Other shortcomings are:

1. The Navy has tended to assign naval officers to administrative duties for which they have not had previous experience or training.

2. Naval governors, as a general rule, have not been reassigned to the same duty or to similar duties.

3. The term of office has been all too short to develop the kind of experience in civil government that would be productive of the best results.

A fourth observation is that military policy in the past has played an important part in determining the character of our colonial government in the western Pacific, and probably will continue to do so for many years. Although the United States has granted independence to the Philippines, these islands continue to have an important strategic value for American military defenses in the Pacific. Likewise, as our line of defense in the Pacific has moved farther toward the east, Guam has become a major base whose strategic location makes it a vital factor in the United States' plan of security. While American Samoa has been relegated to a minor role in the American plan of defense, the newly acquired Trust Territory has become increasingly important.

James Buhl Shahan

Finally, it may be said that American policy toward the government of these territories in the western Pacific is now in a gradual process of transition, with Guam, American Samoa, and the Trust Territory being transferred from the control of the Navy to the Department of the Interior. Although the military factors which were present when the United States entered the Pacific as a colonial power have remained virtually unchanged after more than a half-century, it may be safely stated that at no time has American policy contemplated a continuing system of military administration for these areas. In the Philippine Islands, a policy providing for eventual independence for the Philippines was established at the very outset. This policy of self-government, adopted for the Philippines, is now being extended to other areas in the Pacific, such as to Guam, American Samoa, and the Trust Territory. Unlike the situation in the Philippines, however, these islands do not have sufficient population or size to permit them to be treated as potential states in the American Union, or as independent republics in the family of nations. Accordingly, they may continue to have the status of military outposts, since their military significance constitutes their primary value to the United States.

363. SILLIMAN, Rachel Gadiane (Ph. D.). "The Visayans and Pilipino: A Study of Regional Elite Attitudes, Nationalism, and Language Planning in the Philippines." Claremont Graduate School, 1976. 145 pp. Source: DAI, XXXVII, 1A (July, 1976), 270-A. XUM Order No. 76-16,639.

This study, which was conducted in two cities and two municipalities in the provinces of Iloilo and Negros Oriental, Philippines, from June 1973 to February 1974, probes the effects of the ascendance of Tagalog as the national language on the Visayans and ascertains the veracity, causes, and nature of the "Visayan Resistance" against Tagalog that is presumed to exist.

The elite, defined as "those holding positions of authority and responsibility," is concentrated on because, by virtue of their positions, they are the ones who implement government policy as well as the first to be affected by it. It is assumed that if the persons charged with implementation of the national language program are not wholeheartedly in favor of it, the program will move slowly and any gains will be largely incremental and from sources not directly related to the program implementation itself.

Using the interview as the primary method of securing data, 115 respondents from the political and educational elite of each locality were asked questions designed to demonstrate whether held attitudes are correlated with age, instruction in Tagalog, mobility, patronage of mass media in Tagalog and regional origin of parents and/or spouse.

The findings of this study of the Visayan sector indicate that with the exception of the last, there is no positive correlation between the above-mentioned variables and acceptance of Tagalog as the national language. A majority of the respondents are of the opinion that a moratorium on the teaching of Pilipino (viz., Tagalog) and a reevaluation of the present policy are necessary because it has sown discord and encouraged divisiveness. They favor the development of a native national language but they believe that this language should assimilate lexical entries from other Philippine languages, not Tagalog that has simply been relabeled.

In spite of strong feelings against Tagalog as the national language, those interviewed do not belong to an organized group or groups banded expressly to counteract Pilipino. There is no Visayan "resistance" in the organized sense of the word. If the subjects resist Pilipino, it comes in the form of apathy toward the language.

In many of the respondents, there is a degree of ambivalence. While a national language which is native is desired for symbolic purposes (e.g., to show that the Philippines is nationalistic and united, there is also a reluctance to give up English, since they are convinced that English is a more useful and practical language that should be learned if the Philippines is to develop economically and to modernize.

Edelmira D. Sinco

364. SINCO, Edelmira D. (Ph. D.). "Student Needs and College Environments of Selected Universities in the Philippines." Michigan State University, 1968. 152 pp. Source: DAI, XXX, 1A (July, 1969), 141-A-142-A. XUM Order No. 69-11,166.

The Problem

The purpose of this investigation was to study the personality needs of students and their perceptions of the environmental press of their institutions in three of the largest universities in the Philippines. These were a public university; a private and sectarian institution; and a private, non-sectarian university. It was the purpose of this study also to compare the differences between freshmen's and sophomores' personality needs and their perceptions of the press of their respective institutions.

It was hypothesized that at the five per cent level no significant differences existed in perceptions of freshmen and sophomores of the college environmental press based on eleven environment factors derived from the College Characteristics in the public university, the private, sectarian university, and the private, non-sectarian university. It was also hypothesized on the five per cent level that no significant differences could be found in the personality needs of freshman and sophomore students based on twelve personality factors as assessed by the Stern Activities Index.

The Sample

The sample for the study came from freshman and sophomore students enrolled in a public university, a private, sectarian university, and a private, non-sectarian university (three of the largest universities in the Philippines based on student population during the academic year 1966-1967). The students were enrolled in the second semester of the school year 1966-1967 and were drawn randomly from freshman and sophomore classes.

The Methodology

The student respondents were given two questionnaires: the College Characteristics Index and the Stern Activities Index. Mean scores from the College Characteristics Index were combined to form eleven environment factors. The Stern Activities Index scores were also combined to arrive at twelve factors of personality. At the five per cent level significant differences for each of the twenty three factors were determined by the use of the t tests.

The Findings

It was hypothesized at the five per cent level that there would be no significant differences in the perceptions of the environmental press by freshman and sophomore students on the eleven environment factors: namely, Aspirational Level, Intellectual Climate, Student Dignity, Academic Climate, Academic Achievement, Self-Expression, Group Life, Academic Organization, Social Form, Play-Work, and Vocational Climate.

It was also hypothesized at the five per cent level that no significant differences would be found in the personality needs of the respondents based on the following twelve personality factors: Self-Assertion, Audacity-Timidity, Intellectual Interests, Motivation, Applied Interests, Orderliness, Submissiveness, Closeness, Sensuousness, Friendliness, Expressiveness-Constraint, and Egoism-Diffidence.

The public university environment was characterized by high scores on Academic Achievement, Academic Climate, Self-Expression, Intellectual Climate, Aspirational Level, and Social Form.

No significant differences were found on each of the eleven environment factors. Hence hypothesis 1 to hypothesis 11 that suggested that no significant differences would occur were all accepted.

The students of the public university were found to have high needs in the following personality factors: Applied Interests, Intellectual Interests, Motivation, Orderliness, Closeness, and Submissiveness. They showed low needs for

Expressiveness-Constraint and Egoism-Diffidence.

There were no significant differences in the personality needs of the students in all the personality factors except one, in Applied Interests, where the freshmen showed a greater need. Thus hypothesis 12 to hypothesis 23 were supported except hypothesis 16 which was rejected.

In the private, sectarian university, the press of the environment was found strongest in Academic Climate, Academic Achievement, Social Form, Academic Organization, Group Life, and Vocation Climate and lowest in Student Dignity.

There were no significant differences in the students' perceptions of the press of the environment. Thus hypotheses 1 to 11 were accepted.

The student body, on the other hand, was found to have strong needs in the following areas: Applied Interests, Intellectual Interests, Closeness, Orderliness, and Submissiveness. They showed only a low need for Expressiveness-Constraint.

No significant differences existed in the personality needs of the students. Hence hypotheses 12 to 23 were supported.

The press of the environment in the private, non-sectarian institution was in the direction of Vocational Climate and Academic Organization. Low press was perceived in the factors of Aspirational Level, Intellectual Climate, and Academic Climate.

No significant differences were found in the students' perceptions of the college environment. Hypothesis 1 to hypothesis 11 were then accepted.

Student personality needs in this university were found greatest in the following factors: Applied Interests, Intellectual Interests, Orderliness, and Closeness. Students had low need for Expressiveness-Constraint and Sensuousness.

The students did not show any significant differences in their personality needs. Hence hypotheses 12 to 23 were accepted.

Patricia Ann Snyder

365. SNYDER, Patricia Ann (Ph. D.). "Education and the Process of Socio-Cultural Change in a Bisayan Filipino Town: A Study of Conflict in the Siaton Schools." Syracuse University, 1971. 331 pp. Source: DAI, XXXII, 11A (May, 1972), 6019-A. XUM Order No. 72-11,866.

This study investigates the problem of how the educational system of a Bisayan Filipino town participates in the process of socio-cultural change. Socio-cultural change is regarded from the perspective of conflict theory which considers two types of social conflict. One type involves no value conflict, is easily resolved, and functions to maintain the existing system. The second type of conflict contains value conflicts, is not readily resolved until there is change, and functions to modify the society and culture.

This research was conducted in Siaton on Negros Island in the Philippines from October 1969 to July 1970. The two major research techniques used were participant observation and directed interviewing. Data were compiled about norms and social dramas (social conflicts) between participants in the educational process of the elementary school and high school.

The research setting is described. Background data present the history, topography, financing, curriculum and demography of the two Siaton schools.

It was found that social conflict functioned both to maintain and to change the socio-cultural system. Conflict reinforced the system by establishing and maintaining groups, and by revitalizing norms and values. In addition, it was discovered that conflict defined norms for an actor who is playing a new role.

This study affirmed the presence of certain norms and values which are described in many studies of lowland Filipinos on other islands. However the data suggest supplements to the findings from some of these studies. It was discovered that there can be negative connotations to the use of go-betweens, hiya (a sense of shyness, shame), and reciprocity. Social ranking by expertise was also discovered. The desirability of self-help and of the use of credit emerge from the data.

This investigation reveals certain norms which contradict the findings of other research among lowland Filipinos. It was found that the parish priest had limited authority over the high school faculty and students. Teachers at both schools had to work to maintain authority over parents and students. The boys and girls at the high school were involved in frequent group social interaction.

It was discovered that social conflict contributed to the process of socio-cultural change by offering an arean for confrontation between values. Seven value conflicts are identified: centralized versus decentralized authority; individual versus group authority; communal versus institutional property rights; social interaction versus separation of the sexes; optional versus compulsory attendance at confession; self-help versus the legal system; and cash versus credit.

It was concluded that the study of social conflict is a productive approach to understanding the statics and dynamics of a socio-cultural system. The findings of this study raise interesting possibilities for future research about the educational system and socio-cultural change.

366. SOBERANO, Jose D. (Ph. D.). "Economic Planning in the Philippines: Ecology, Politics and Administration." University of Michigan, 1961. 542 pp. Source: DAI, XXII, 2 (August, 1961), 626-627. XUM Order No. Mic 61-2797.

This study attempts to assess the prospects of the comprehensive planning program of the Philippine government. Specifically, this work tests the proposition that the planning program of the Philippine government may not be carried out on the comprehensive scale legally intended for many years to come. The data are presented in three parts. Part I covers the "Ecology of Comprehensive Planning"; Part II, the "Politics and Administration of Comprehensive Planning"; and Part III, the "Conclusions and Recommendations."

The approach to the study is essentially ecological. The comprehensive planning program is examined in its various aspects: as a function, as a structure, as a body of practices and as a composite of valuations. Defined in this manner, the program is then tested according to its compatibility, incompatibility, or facilitativeness in terms of relevant ecological factors (i.e., functions, structures, valuations, and practices), selected according to the following categories: social structures, valuational patterns, communications network, economic foundations, and the general political and administrative systems. Finally, the planning program is studied in detail according to its actual operation and performance from 1935 to the early part of 1960. Explanation of why the planning program performed the way it did is attempted first, from the arrangements found in the detailed analysis of its performance, and second, from the general structural-functional, and evaluational patterns set by the general environment.

The study emphasizes the ecological factors for various reasons:

1. A good many observable facts in the actual performance of the planning program cannot be explained by examining the governmental system alone;

2. The planning program is so encompassing that planning is not alone a function of government but also of the various units and structures of Philippine society.

3. The comprehensive planning is a new function of the Philippine government and it is believed, with John M. Gaus, that there is an explanation of the functions of government in the changes which take place in its environment, changes which coerce us into the use of government as an instrument of public housekeeping and adjustment.

Among the significant conclusions of the study are the following:

1. There is an evident overloading of the governmental structure with the comprehensive planning action.

2. There is a need to decentralize the planning action laterally and vertically in order to ease the pressure upon the governmental structure. Recommendations are made accordingly.

3. The pressure for a strengthened economic and social development program cannot come from the general society but must be self-generated from within the government. It is accordingly recommended that a corps of government executives be trained to generate the pressure for a strengthened economic and social development program.

4. The technical assistance program of the United States in the Philippines will become increasingly significant over the years particularly in helping implement the recommendations made in conclusion number three above.

367. SOBREPENA, David Aguinaldo (Ph. D.). "The Utilization of Engineering Graduates in the Philippine Employment Market." University of Michigan, 1972. 236 pp.

Source: DAI, XXXIII, 5A (November, 1972), 2050-A.

XUM Order No. 72-29,211.

This study describes the factors that operate in the utilization of Philippine engineering graduates in the employment market. Good utilization is defined as graduates entering employment sectors and job positions that are compatible to their engineering education; job satisfaction as reflected by the availability of job choices for the graduates; and an income level that is at least comparable to income of other professionals in the Philippine employment market.

The population used in this study was 1,189 engineers who graduated in 1963 and 1967 from three universities in the Manila area. These universities were selected as representing three types of institutions of higher education in the Philippines, namely: public, church and private. Data in this study included the graduates' college records, performance in the civil service examination, and responses to a questionnaire filled out by 717 of the graduates. The questionnaire asked about the graduates' socio-economic background, their employment history, and their perception of the relationship of their engineering education to their present employment. Furthermore, data were also gathered about the graduates' respective universities, particularly their admission requirements, curricula, enrollment and graduation patterns; and their engineering faculty. These data showed that there were significant differences among the three universities and that these institutional differences may have influenced differences in characteristics of the graduates they produced and their utilization in the employment market.

Three factors seem to primarily differentiate the graduates. The first is the economic status of the graduates. The data showed that a higher percentage of the graduates from the public and church universities were from high-income families (67 and 74 per cent, respectively), while there were only 41 per cent of the private university graduates who reported coming from high-income families. The second factor is the academic history of the graduates. Those from the public and church universities completed their high school and college work faster than those from the private university. Furthermore, the data suggest that public and church university graduates received better preparatory school education and tended to be full time students while in college than their counterparts from the private university. Finally, graduates from the public university showed the best utilization in the employment market. They were followed by graduates from the church university while those from the private university showed the poorest utilization among graduates from all three universities.

The study suggests concerns for educational planners desirous in relating Philippine educational output to national development. These concerns include:

1. The improvement of pre-college education.

2. The development of post-high school institutions for vocational education.

3. The provision of educational and incentive scholarships, loans and other financial help for college students from low-income families available for use in all accredited institutions of higher education--public, church, or private.

4. The development of educational recruitment and placement programs that would be:

   a. Concerned with the professionalization of all high-level occupations, such as engineering, by minimally requiring the passing of a competency examination given by the civil service commission, prior to professional practice.

   b. Equal employment opportunities for all graduates regardless of institution, sex, regional differences and such other characteristics not related to professional competence.

   c. The enlargement of the employment market so as to include the emigration of graduates to foreign countries, where their education and skills may find compatible job opportunities.

368. SOCRATES, Jose Bosano (Ph. D.). "The Language Problem in the Public Schools of the Philippines." University of Chicago, 1964. Source: Author.

The Problem

This documentary study has attempted to trace the events which had bearing on the language situation in the Philippines. It has pointed out in particular, those developments which tended to show how the educational system, mainly the public schools, attempted to resolve the difficulties created by a polylingual situation. The salient problems concerned the choice of a language as a medium of instruction in the schools, the selection of an official language of government, the development of a national tongue, and the provision for formal language instruction in the schools.

The study covers a period of 100 years from 1863 to 1963. During these years the country came under a succession of political regimes as follows: 1863-98, Spanish; 1898-1935, American; 1935-41, 1944-46, Commonwealth of the Philippines; 1942-44, Japanese; and 1946 to date, the Republic of the Philippines. The presence of these political regimes led to correlative differences in policies regarding the official language of the land and the language of the schools. It was the aim of the study to describe the policies on language and their antecedent conditions during each regime, and to determine the extent to which the policies were implemented in the public schools.

For objective data to help indicate the extent of the implementation of a language policy, the various changes in the time allotment for subjects in the curricular programs were compiled for each regime. The unit used was the number of minutes alloted to a course per school day. For this study, only the programs of public elementary and secondary schools offering the "general" curriculum were considered.

Under Spain

The Situation

Spain established its rule in the Philippines in 1565, but previous to this the Islands had been peopled by immigrants from other parts of Southeast Asia 200 years before the Christian era. The migrants, mostly Malayans, Indonesians and Chinese, came in isolated waves. They brought with them a system of writing based on Arabic, and a great number of dialects. Census count in 1903 placed the number of native dialects and languages at eighty-seven. Of these, eight were generally spoken by 90 per cent of the population but only three, Tagalog, Ilocano, and the Visayan have spread more rapidly than the others.

The Spanish came upon a people divided into fragmented political and cultural units without a national system of government or education. They ruled the country from 1565 to 1898 and established a national system of government in which the Filipinos were very slowly allowed participation. Spanish religious orders established the first schools, mostly secondary and collegiate, and generally "civilized" and educated the Filipinos and introduced the Spanish language. With the introduction of Spanish and the Roman alphabet, the native script deteriorated. The dialects, however, were preserved and their literary qualities improved with the Romanization of their alphabet.

The Policy

Mass public elementary education under government auspices was decreed only in 1863. No public secondary schools were established. For the public schools, as in fact for the entire people, the government of Spain was unwavering in its policy of spreading the Spanish language. Spanish was decreed as the language of instruction in all grades. The policy antedated the founding of the public school system by more than 300 years. It was an integral part of the policy of cultural assimilation of all Spanish colonies. A restatement of the policy to spread Spanish was made from time to time, and even after 1863 several documents reiterated the desire of the government for the wider use of Spanish. The Royal Decree of 1863 which ordered the opening of public schools, also provided inducements expected to make the knowledge of Spanish a desirable acquisition.

Working counter to the official government policy, however, was an unwritten policy of some Spanish religious orders and parish priests to give instruction in the vernaculars. It was alleged by both Filipino and foreign historians, and even by some Spanish civil officials, that the priests did not wish the Filipinos to learn Spanish lest access to a sophisticated literature might lead to political agitation against the authority of Spain. The power of the priests is explained by the fact that during the years they were able to work their way into a position of great influence among the Filipinos. With the founding of the public schools, the parish priests were legally authorized to supervise the schools. Hence, it is possible that where they chose to, the parish priests may have been able to enforce their own unwritten policy of giving instruction in the vernaculars.

Implementation of the Policy

Public elementary education under the Spanish was not professionally administered. Records and statistics were either unavailable or unreliable. Hence, the extent of the implementation of the policy to spread Spanish may be gauged only indirectly. By the end of the Spanish era, only about 11 per cent of the entire population of almost seven million were found able to speak or understand the language.

The role of the public schools in increasing the number of those who spoke or understood Spanish was not significant. Enrollment was low; public elementary education was not widespread enough and only of the lowest standard. Furthermore, there was a lack of competent teachers of Spanish to meet even the minimum requirements of the law. On top of this, the presence of successive government orders imploring the proper implementation of the policy to teach Spanish, suggest that the priests were pursuing their own policy.

It was recognized, however, by both Filipinos and Americans that in city schools and those in large towns, Spanish was conscientiously taught. Where this was true, three hours a day were devoted to the language, one hour each for writing, reading, and grammar. But, beyond teaching the language as ordered, its use as the medium of instruction would have been contingent only upon the extent to which the pupils of each school had grasp of the tongue. No data from this study can support any definite conclusion on this matter.

Under the United States

The Situation

When the Americans gained political control of the Philippines in 1898, the local linguistic situation characterized by the prevalence of eighty-seven dialects remained unchanged. No common tongue could be understood by all the people. After nearly four centuries of domination, the Spaniards were unable to cause their language to supplant the various dialects, nor were they able to develop a common native tongue. On the contrary, the early Spanish missionaries applied themselves to the study of the dialects, especially the Tagalog. They recorded maxims, proverbs, folklore, and songs, and wrote the grammar of the more advanced dialects.

Although a small minority of Filipinos spoke the Spanish language upon the arrival of the Americans, those who did so were the educated people, especially the lawyers and the social elite. It was to this group of the population that the Americans first had to turn for aid in the administration of the colony. Hence, the fact that Spanish did not become the language of the schools, nor the national tongue of the people, by no means eliminated it as a language of importance. It was still the language of the courts, if not simply the badge of social distinction and prestige.

The Policy

The Americans founded a public educational system at the elementary and secondary levels. The introduction of English was logical. It was expected to serve as a common medium of communication and it became an official language of government.

In the schools English was employed as the medium of instruction in all grades right from the start of the founding of the public schools. American teachers were recruited from the United States to form a core of English teachers. The use of English as the medium of instruction necessitated the teaching of the language as a formal subject in all grades also. The policy was to attempt to teach English in its purity.

It appears that the vernaculars were found to be still impractical for the purpose of education. A weak agitation for vernacular education during the early part of the American era never received serious official attention. There was no national language and early efforts to develop one failed. Although Spanish was not widespread enough to merit its employment as the language of education, it was allowed to remain as an official language. A law in 1918 made Spanish an optional subject in the high schools.

Implementation of the Policy

An examination of the successive changes in the curriculum of the public elementary schools reveals definite trends in the emphasis on teaching English. Between 1911 and 1924 there was a gradual increase in the time allotment for English. From one hour or an average of 30 per cent per grade per day in 1910, the figure rose to an average of three hours or 52 per cent of the total time allotment per grade per day in 1924.

During the last decade of the American rule, between 1924 and 1935, the high level of emphasis on English in the curriculum compared with all other subjects was maintained. This was done after a nation-wide survey of the school system in 1924 asserted that the instruction in English was inadequate. The increase in, and maintenance of the comparatively high emphasis on English was generally true of all elementary school programs from Grades I to VII. The emphasis was greatest in Grade I and least in Grade VII. This proportion was maintained in every curricular revision.

There was a very slight decline in the emphasis on English in the 1930's which may be ascribed to the weak economic position of the country during the depression years. Not to be discounted as a factor in the decline was a resurgence of the agitation for vernacular education, culminating in the 1939 order of the Secretary of Education which sanctioned the limited use of the vernaculars.

The secondary curriculum did not exhibit such dramatic changes in the English language program as did the elementary courses. In the high schools two English course subjects were generally offered in the first year, and one each for the second, third and fourth years. By contrast, the secondary curriculum alone carried the Spanish language in the upper two years as an optional subject.

Under the Commonwealth of the Philippines

The Situation

The Commonwealth period was supposed to be a ten-year transition from American rule to complete political independence. The economy of the country was much improved and evidently the American rulers considered the Filipinos politically matured. American culture, however, was already deeply engrained in the Filipino even if the feeling of nationalism was very high.

The Policy

Under the Commonwealth, the educational system continued the policy of having English as the principal medium of instruction in the schools and as a required subject in all grades. Spanish still remained as an optional subject in the upper two years of the high schools. The Constitution of the Commonwealth recognized Spanish, together with English, as an official language.

It was during the Commonwealth period that the use of the vernaculars as auxiliary media of instruction was officially sanctioned. In the first two primary grades, teachers were permitted to use the dialects to clear up difficulties encountered by students in any subject. In Grades III and IV, the use of the dialects was limited only to the non-English subjects. Teachers of English language subjects could resort to the dialects only in cases of extreme difficulty.

The Constitution directed the law-making body of the country to take steps to develop a native national language. This was complied with and Tagalog was chosen as the basis of the future national language. Almost immediately it was ordained that the national language be taught in all schools. The choice of Tagalog, however, was promptly challenged by critics and its teaching in the schools was assailed with the charge that it was Tagalog that was being taught and not a national language.

Implementation of the Policy

The period saw the start of a decline in the amount of time alloted to the teaching of English language subjects. But by the time the Japanese overran the country in 1942, pupils in Grades I and II were still spending more than half of their school time in learning English. Even in the sixth grade a full third of class time each day was devoted to the study of English. The elimination of the seventh grade in 1940, however, must certainly have influenced adversely the English skills of the elementary school graduate.

In the secondary schools, English Composition was generally offered as a forty-minute class in the second, third and fourth year in combination with English Literature. Only in the first year were the two subjects taken as separate courses.

The degree of implementation of the policy on the vernacular can only be surmised. Apparently, the best a teacher could do was to employ her spoken knowledge of the dialect to explain a difficult lesson. However, this was not always possible since teachers were not generally assigned to schools in their own area.

The extent of the implementation of the teaching of the national language during the Commonwealth period was not great. Only the fourth year classes of all secondary schools and the graduating classes of normal schools were required to take the course during the school years 1940-41 and 1941-42. The 1941-42 class was cut short by World War II. After 1944, however, all grades from primary to high school taught the national language.

The quality of the implementation of the teaching of the national language may only be deduced from the fact that there was a decided lack of qualified teachers. At this period, knowledge of Tagalog became the single most important qualification for teaching the Filipino language. Implementation was started before the normal schools could train teachers of the language.

Under the Japanese Occupation

The Situation

The ten-year Commonwealth period was cut short by World War II when the Japanese occupied the Islands in 1942. They ruled the country for a little more than two years. The situation may be summarized briefly as strained,[4] to say the least.

The Policy

Nippongo was ordered taught in all grades. This order was later modified and the teaching of the language was not started until the fourth grade. The use of English was officially ordered terminated in due course, but in the meantime it remained the language of instruction. It was also in fact the common medium of communication between the Japanese and the Filipinos. Spanish was supposed to be outlawed but diplomatic intervention caused a lifting of the ban.

Tagalog was declared the national language in 1942. This was in contrast to the Commonwealth policy whereby Tagalog was only the basis of the national language. Its teaching was required of the schools for the school year 1944-45. The same policy on the vernaculars as auxiliary media of instruction under the Commonwealth was also enforced.

Implementation of the Policy

At best, the teaching of Nippongo in the public schools was effected for only one full school year and only where teachers were available. The teaching of Tagalog was for even less than one school year. Whatever language skills the children may have acquired must have redounded in favor of English or even the vernaculars. This is supported by the fact that the textbooks were still in English and English language subjects remained in the curriculum.

Under the Republic of the Philippines

The Situation

Full political independence was given to the country in 1946. The fact that the Commonwealth was a planned transition to independence was an assurance of a normal continuity of policy.

The Policy

Between 1946 and 1957 English remained the principal medium of instruction and a required subject in all grades. The use of the vernaculars was governed by the same policy as under the Commonwealth. This was also true of the National language; however, the schools required the teaching of the Filipino Language in all grades. Spanish was still an elective subject in the high schools which could afford to offer it.

The policy after 1957 was explicitly stated by the National Board of Education and may be summarized as follows: In Grades I and II the local dialects were to be media of instruction; the Filipino Language was to be introduced as a subject in Grade I and given increasing emphasis in the higher grades; English was to be introduced informally and required as a subject in Grade III. From Grade III on, English was to be the medium of instruction with the vernaculars only as auxiliary media. In 1960 the length of time for the Filipino Language was differentiated for schools in Tagalog and non-Tagalog regions.

The Spanish language became a required subject in all collegiate courses in 1952. Five years later, the number of required units in Spanish was doubled for certain college courses. In the high schools, the Secretary of Education ordered an intensification of the implementation of the law making Spanish an optional subject.

Implementation of the Policy

As a result of this multiple language policy, and in the face of continued financial difficulties, the decline in English instruction was sharp and obvious. By 1957, the percentage of the school day devoted to English language subject studies in the elementary schools averaged only 15 per cent. A significant shift, however, was noted in the formal method of teaching of English. Teachers of English have increasingly adopted the so-called "second language" method. This is in contrast to the former mode of teaching English as though it were a first language of the Filipinos. Parallel methods are also used in teaching the Filipino Language to non-Tagalogs. The same provision for English in the high schools as during the Commonwealth period prevailed.

The 1960 census shows the extent of the success of general efforts to spread Spanish and English in the country. Whereas in 1903, after more than 300 years of Spanish rule, only 11 per cent of the Filipinos could speak Spanish, in 1960, after only sixty years of education in English, an average of 40 per cent of the population could speak English. The percentage of those who could speak Spanish had dropped to only 2 per cent. A substantial increase in the number of speakers of a Tagalog-based language was also noted.

Analysis

Factors Influencing Language Policies

No single statement of cause and effect will suffice to point out the conditions which shaped the policies with regard to language and their implementation in the public schools of the Philippines. The interaction of a number of conditions which existed at one time or another contributed in varying degrees toward the development and resolution of the issue.

The following conditions may be identified:

1. The absence of a well-developed native language or languages in the country. When the Spanish came, the Filipinos had no national language. The eight major language groups did not have any extensive literature to speak of. The alphabet consisted of a crude syllabary whose weakness was manifested by its easy deterioration in the face of the introduction of the Roman alphabet. Even with the advantage offered by the more adequate Roman alphabet, native literature failed to expand rapidly. Consequently, no truly Filipino education using a Filipino language developed.

   In the absence of an indigenous educational system conducted in a native language of at least wide usage, the foreign rulers of the Filipinos found it expedient to establish their own educational system, employing the language they desired. Thus the Spanish established private and public schools where the policy was to teach Spanish and to use it as the medium of instruction. When the Americans came, the Spanish educational system had not taken deep root either and it was not systematically and professionally administered. The language of instruction was neither decidedly Spanish nor native. Hence, it may be said that there was really no indigenous public educational system upon the arrival of the Americans. In this way, the Americans were able to exercise great freedom in founding a school system of their own and deciding the language to use, English.

2. The educational policies of the foreign powers. These policies were dependent upon their respective political policies as well as on the internal conditions in the Islands. In the Philippines the internal conditions and the political policies coincidentally reinforced each other. The Spanish policy of cultural assimilation of the natives, if effectively translated into educational action, could only have meant the spread of the Spanish language among the Filipinos. In turn, the Americans followed their own policy of assimilation in the belief that this would ultimately lead to independent democratic government. It was logical under these circumstances for the Americans to employ their own language, which was seen as the language of the great democracies.

   Thus the desire to spread Spanish and English as called for by the political policies of Spain and the United States respectively, strengthened their educational policies to employ their language. To a lesser degree, the political policies of the Philippine government during the Commonwealth and Republic periods which gave importance to the active participation of the country in international affairs, augured well for the retention of Spanish and English.

3. The resurgence of a determined support for the use of the vernaculars as media of instruction even though they were poorly developed. The lack of development of the native languages was merely a deterrent to their early use and did not entirely preclude their employment as auxiliary media of instruction, limited, however, to the lower primary grades. Officially, the use of the dialects as auxiliary media of instruction was sanctioned only in 1939. This did not mean that as of that date the vernaculars were already well developed.

4. The national policy to extend mass education coincided

with the community school movement. Through the years, the schools had a low holding power. This was blamed partly on the use of a foreign tongue in the schools. In turn, the poor holding power of the schools meant a low literacy rate. The solution adopted was for more mass education in the native language understood by the child.

The community school philosophy was ideally geared to support vernacularism. Through the community schools, the community and the schools were expected to be mutually drawn together in greater participation and cooperation toward the solution of their problems.

5. The extent of the impact of the foreign culture on the Filipinos. Political independence was not necessarily a prelude to linguistic dissociation from the foreign ruler. The Spanish Christianized the Filipinos and introduced a far richer civilization. The Spanish language was a sophisticated enough instrument of the Filipino ruling class to enable them to meet the Americans on equal ground. The surprising fact is that one of the grievances of the Filipinos against Spain was the failure of the latter to teach the natives the Spanish language. Furthermore, the impact of more than 300 years of Spanish rule could not be easily erased. Hence, Spanish stayed on in the Philippines. However, the decrease in the percentage of Spanish-speaking Filipinos by 1960 is indicative of the diminishing influence of Spanish culture on the Filipinos.

   The acceptance of American culture by the Filipinos is patent. The influence of the American is everywhere visible in the Islands. This explains why after only thirty-five years of American rule, English remained in the Philippines in a more favored position than Spanish.

6. The nationalistic movement. Insofar as language was concerned, the movement culminated in the establishment by legislative action of a native based national tongue in 1946. This language has since found its way into the curriculum of the schools.

   It is evident, however, that an artificial language foisted on a school system, coupled with legal pressures for its development, generates adverse reactions against it. The reactions initially took the form of a reversal of an original puristic policy of the Institute of National Language. Later, a bill was introduced in the Philippine Senate aimed at re-examining the Institute itself and its purposes and methods. Further, a recent circular of the Director of the Bureau of Public Schools which will enjoin teachers to teach simplified Tagalog is awaiting approval by the Secretary of Education.

7. Legal Action. As a method of enunciating or enforcing a national policy, legal action was not confined to the national language. Even the place of English and Spanish is also insured by laws. But legislative action in the Philippines does not stop with general declaration of policies; it extends to prescription of specific subjects. The 1952 and 1957 laws requiring Spanish in collegiate courses were enacted in the face of a diminishing influence of Spanish culture. The lofty aim of the laws to help assure the perpetuation of Spanish influence on Philippine culture was dampened by the charge that the personal influence and prestige of the authors of the laws played a greater role in their passage.

8. Administrative decision. The directorate of the school system itself is partly responsible for the latest multiple language policy. While complaining of the action of the legislature, the administration arrogated to itself the burden of propagating the national language. It has imposed the new language on all grades of the elementary and secondary schools. This was its interpretation of the letter of the law which says that the national language should be taught "in all schools." This provision is certainly subject to different interpretations.

The Philippine Situation in Perspective

This study included a review of the language situation in India, Indonesia, and Vietnam. The findings from this portion of the study made it possible to compare the Philippine situation with those of other former colonial countries. Some similarities and differences were noted. These are, however, only in degree from country to country.

1. In India, Vietnam, and the Philippines, the political policies of the foreign rulers were partially assimilationist in aim. Hence, the presence of well developed native schools and languages in India and Vietnam did not prevent the British and French from founding schools in their own language, even if they at the same time respected and tolerated the native schools. In Indonesia, however, the situation was different. It was the political policy of maintaining the _status quo_ which called for vernacular education, even if native education was not extensively developed. The policy was intended to enlist the political support of indigenous rulers and at the same time enhance the commercial interests of the Dutch. Education in Dutch was simply reserved for Dutch children, although the admittance of children of the native leaders was also in line with the political policy.

2. The use of the vernaculars for mass education was generally practiced in the four countries. In India, official British recognition of the need for the vernaculars in mass education came as early as 1854. In Vietnam, the compulsory requirement for education in _quoc ngu_ resulting in an alleged increase in literacy was an even more dramatic illustration of the logical necessity of the vernaculars in mass education. It was, however, only in the Philippines that the influence of the community school movement enhanced vernacularism.

3. The cultural impact on the colonial peoples was also a common factor. The case of the return of English in the schools of India after independence dramatizes the extent to which the factor of cultural impact and adequacy of a language can influence policies. The same is true of French and Dutch in Vietnam and Indonesia respectively. For, notwithstanding the exploitative aspects of foreign domination, there is no denying the great contribution of these civilizations to the life and institutions of the indigenous peoples of colonial countries in a variety of ways.

4. In all four countries, the development of nationalism had linguistic implications. The language result of the nationalist movement, however, seems to have set the Philippines apart from the other three countries. In India, Indonesia, and Vietnam, living languages were selected as the official and national languages. In the Philippines, the law created a national language based on one of the existing languages. The immediate interpretation and implementation of the law resulted in what has been described as an artificial language. The reactions in the Philippines against the legislated language finds an echo in the reaction against Hindi in India in favor of the regional dialects and even in favor of English.

5. In all countries studied, legislation enforced the the teaching of languages. The study, however, has no data on the extent to which the legislative bodies of the other three countries prescribed specific language subjects in the curriculum of the public schools.

6. The one great difference between the Philippines and the other three countries reviewed concerns indigenous education. In the three countries reviewed, one notes the presence of educational institutions in native languages long before the arrival of the Europeans. Consequently, the schools were allowed continued operations. The foreign rulers did not try to change the language of education in the indigenous schools. After their independence, vernacular education reached even the universities.

   By contrast, in the Philippines there was no indigenous education. The development of the public schools under Spain was also relatively haphazard. On the other hand, the educational system in English during the American era was decidedly successful, or at least definitely established by 1935. Hence, the educational officials of the Commonwealth, the Republic, and even the Japanese regimes, simply found it convenient to continue the use of English as the language of education. Hence, too, until 1963 vernacular education in the Philippines is still in its infancy.

Jose Bosano Socrates

Consequences of Alternate Actions

1. Realistically, there are three main lines of action open to the Philippine educational system. The first is naturally the continuation of the current policy, the most striking characteristic of which is the interplay of various conflicting interests dictated by national pride, international commitments, local traditions, and pedagogical and psychological considerations.

   The present policy was hastily enunciated and represents an attempt at compromise. It reflects a strong bias toward the creation of a national language in spite of the fact that policy makers have suggested that there is no urgency in introducing a national language in the first grade. The present law does not require the teaching of the national language in all grades of the schools. The Technical Committee of the National Board of Education itself which discussed the details of the policy recognized that the schools have more important purposes than the development of a national language. Neither did they consider the possession of a national tongue as a prerequisite for national solidarity.

   Even the resort to vernacularism in the primary grades on a nationwide basis is questionable. The experiment of Aguilar, which provides the main basis of the policy, was limited to only one dialect and it has been argued that other dialects might present different results.

   The effect of the current policy has been a proliferation of language studies in the primary grades. The situation contradicts another assumption of the Technical Committee--that effective teaching is best attained by the use of one language. At the same time it does not seem to reinforce the policy of the state for mass education to raise the level of literacy. Literacy does not just mean the ability to read and write. Language is a basic tool of literacy, but a knowledge of three languages in the first years of a child's study would seem superfluous.

   Thus it could be argued that present policies have "sacrificed the child to the state." They contradict the one principle that would appear to have benefited the child--that effective teaching is best attained by the use of one language. At the same time there is a very real danger that present policies will not assist substantially in the development of mass literacy. The prospect of an early development of the national language is good, but the chance of the individual student to gain a good basic education is jeopardized.

2. At present, the important position of the English language is still unquestioned. It may be assumed, however, that with the increased interest being given to the vernaculars and the national language, their development as effective media of communication will increase. To what extent and when the national language will eventually be able to become dominant throughout the country is difficult to tell. But, so far as the language of education is concerned, it appears that at some point the educational system will have to make a choice between education conducted mainly in the vernacular or one mainly in the English language.

Perhaps the most valid argument in favor of the continued English language policy is the present state of literacy, general progress of the country, and what the language can do for the future. In sixty years education in the English language was able to raise literacy in the Philippines from 20 per cent to 72 per cent. A continuance of earlier policies might have resulted in almost universal literacy in a few years.

Vernacularism on the other hand derives support from "pedagogical" considerations. Between a language that is already possessed and another which must have to be learned before it can be a vehicle of education, there is little doubt that the former can be relied upon to effect greater understanding. It has therefore been argued that vernacular policies have just as strong a potential to raise the literacy of the people, and perhaps at a faster rate. The case of Vietnam would appear to support this contention.

However, the effectiveness of education in the English language is demonstrable in many phases of life of the country. English is the language of commerce and business; the more widely circulated media of mass communication are almost exclusively English, and the conduct and success of the government in the English language has earned for the country the flattering title of the show window of democracy in the Far East.

On the other hand, vernacular education might easily win the support of the masses. With sufficient interest and determination, obstacles may be easily overcome. That the vernaculars have survived four centuries of foreign domination demonstrates their tenacity, but their ultimate power to maintain and raise the present state of civilization remains conjectural.

There is, too, no escaping the stark realities of the future. By their own choice, emergent nations seek recognition and participation in world affairs. It just so happens that the main media of communication in the concourse of nations are the languages of former colonial powers. The Philippines is fortunate to possess two of these, English and Spanish. Yet, there is no denying the power of nationalism in stimulating interest in the traditional culture of the Filipinos and those indigenous values and traditions which have been submerged by four centuries of foreign cultural assimilation. As an aspect of nationalism, the replacement of a foreign tongue with an indigenous language has powerful symbolic functions.

But, it can be contended that nationalism must be realistic and forward looking. Whether colonial peoples like it or not, their civilizations bear the imprint of foreign cultures. It may seem desirable to revive the indigenous past, but such efforts should not impede the economic and social advance of the nation. To paraphrase Barrows, a former Director of Education, for the nation to confine itself to its native language would simply perpetuate that isolation which it has so long suffered.

369. SORIANO, Domingo Gonzales (Ed. D.). "A Plan to Promote

Domingo Gonzales Soriano

Adaptability in the Division of Zamboanga, Philippines." Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. Source: Eells, p. 123; and TCCU DIGESTS (1953), pp. 771-773.

Modern educational practice continually influences the schools of the Philippines, especially after the second World War. The principles of activity curriculum, democracy, and school-community relationship more and more occupy the minds of Philippine educators. This was especially true after the UNESCO Mission rendered its report in 1949, and after several educational leaders were sent abroad to observe and study modern educational practices. The community school, curriculum enrichment, and adult education were the subjects of bulletins issued by the Bureau of Public Schools, and the themes of conventions of the Philippine Association of School Superintendents.

Now, the Philippine educational system is one of the most highly centralized among the democratic countries of the world. This is especially true in the Bureau of Public Schools. It can be understood, therefore, that there are but few men in the country who can lead in this modern educational movement. Educational leadership is needed. The writer came here to Teachers College and formulated this plan to fill that need, at least, in part.

After defining the problem in the Introduction the rest of the plan is divided into two parts--Preplanning and Field Planning.

In preplanning, the geographical, historical, sociological, and philosophical background of the Division of Zamboanga were studied in order to understand its educational setting. Then, from the studies of adaptability, an attempt was made to describe an adaptable school which will serve as a model for those who want to promote adaptability in their schools. The third step in preplanning was to compare the existing conditions in the schools in the Division of Zamboanga with those in the adaptable school with the view to discover deficiencies that may be removed or remedied to promote adaptability. After these, the actual formulation of the plan takes place, taking into consideration the factors of adaptability and the unique conditions in the Division of Zamboanga. Only the factors which are suited to the conditions in the Division of Zamboanga will be selected and used.

The actual field planning will be done in the several schools in the division when specific plans for specific schools will be made by all concerned--administrators, teachers, pupils, and the people of the community.

In this project report, the plan was centered around the community school as the most likely system in rural Philippines where adaptability may be promoted. Specific projects in community improvement, curriculum development, pooling and sharing, guidance, and evaluation are outlined. Specific procedures and suggested organizations to carry out these projects are also described. It is envisioned that similar projects or parts of the projects on the local level will be developed when the field planning will take place in Zamboanga.

The concluding chapter is intended to pull the basic ideas together and project plans for future development.

370. SORIANO, Liceria Brillantes (Ed. D.). "Planning the Development and Administration of Science Programs for Philippine Community Schools." Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958. 186 pp. Source: Eells, p. 123; and TCCU DIGESTS (1958), pp. 593-594.

The Philippines is a young country. Having gained its independence barely a decade ago, it is in the process of evolving a political, social, and economic status commensurate with the aspirations of the people and the resources of the nation. The people are freedom-loving people. The country is rich in natural resources, over one-half of which is underdeveloped. A new Philippine concept of community education is projected toward the improvement of living in all its aspects. How an adequate program of science education can contribute toward the realization of this objective is the concern of this project.

Weaknesses in Philippine culture such as adherence to superstitions and unfounded beliefs, persistent use of old farming procedures and ineffective industrial practices, lack of the spirit of inquiry and creative thought, the generally low economic status of the family are analyzed and ways to overcome them proposed. The deficiencies of science teaching in the pre-school, elementary, secondary and teacher education levels are pointed out and remedies indicated.

An over-all plan for the development and administration of science programs in Philippine community schools characterized by minimum adequacy in terms of objectives, organization and content, facilities, methods, and evaluative procedures is presented in the project. Some ways of strengthening the science offerings in the curricula of the different instructional levels mentioned above are suggested. Such curricula would provide for continuing experiences that will develop a citizenry equipped with scientific knowledge, skills, and attitudes that an era of science demands. Since the potential citizens that the schools serve include various aptitudes and capacities, suggestions on the identification and full development of the ordinary self-sufficient citizen, the professional man and the future scientist are given. Since the writer belongs to the Bureau of Public Schools, some ways of solving the administrative, financial, and personnel problems of this organization that are on the way in the implementation of this plan are proposed.

Education is a cooperative enterprise. It demands the total effort and responsibility of the community. In line with this fact, the project closes with proposals for securing a coordination of all agencies--public, private, scientific, and lay--in the implementation, development, and support of a science program envisioned to contribute to the solution of the problems of Philippine social and economic life.

371. SORIANO, Rafaelita Vasquez Hilario (Ph. D.). "Japanese

Rafaelita Vasquez Hilario Soriano

Occupation of the Philippines with Special Reference to Japanese Propaganda, 1941-1945." University of Michigan, 1948. 451 pp. Source: DAI, VIII, 2 (1948), 147-148. XUM Order No. 1078.

Japanese propagaganda in the Philippines is so intimately related to Philippine history that a historical background is necessary for understanding the former. This dissertation, therefore, gives the history of the slender Japanese-Philippine relations before the American period which were later magnified out of proportion to their importance as the "traditional friendship" propaganda line of the occupation.

Japan's anti-American propaganda among the Filipinos began soon after Dewey's victory in the battle of Manila Bay, and simultaneously, the first tentative gropings of Japan toward her concept of the "Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere" emerged.

Actual Japanese economic penetration and colonization in the Philippines were effected gradually since 1903 down to the outbreak of the Pacific war. Concurrent propaganda fundamentally aimed at gaining Filipino adherence to Japanese political objectives before the war, were expanded into six general lines during the occupation:

1. Emphasis on "traditional friendship" and racial affinity between the Japanese and the Filipinos.

2. Creation or intensification of race prejudice against the white race, particularly the Anglo-Americans.

3. Glorification of Japan and her "superior Oriental culture."

4. Representation of the puppet Philippine Republic in the best light.

5. Presentation of the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere as an Oriental Utopia.

6. Denial that the guerrilla movement could succeed or that America could return.

The race prejudice line was as effective as any, since it had some justification but its effect did not seem to be particularly great, as is indicated by an analysis of the reports to the United States War Department of 158 American escapees from Japanese prisoner-of-war camps, guerrillas, and civilians, which reveals that 95 percent of the Filipinos even in their darkest hour readily risked their lives to befriend individual Americans.

The continuation of a joint Philippine-American guerrilla effort never gave the subjugated Filipinos a chance to favor Japan against America without disloyalty to their own brothers who were still maintaining resistance in the mountains. America, in spite of some deficiencies and failures, had acquired the respect of Filipinos: she had built up a democratic educational system, raised the standard of living, and established a government by Filipinos in consonance with their natural democratic leanings. Above all, it was not doubted that the Americans would definitely grant full Philippine independence in 1946.

On the other hand, the Filipinos saw the disparity between Japan's promises and the reality of her regime, for gross injustices and abuses were perpetrated by the Japanese. Because of their superficial knowledge of Filipino psychology, the Japanese preached, scolded, shouted and threatened, instead of quietly guiding the Islanders into the Oriental fold. Of all the reasons for the failure of Japanese propaganda in the Philippines, however, the greatest was that the Filipino never believed that his cause was lost and pinned his faith to the ultimate success of the guerrilla movement and the return of the Americans.

372. STONE, Milburn J. (Ph. D.). "Political Socialization and Political Culture in a Philippine Public High School." Claremont Graduate School, 1975. 565 pp. Source: DAI, XXXVII, 1A (July, 1976), 580-A. XUM Order No. 76-15,785.

Milburn J. Stone

This dissertation is a study of Koronadal High School in the Philippines in the 1970-1971 academic year. The school is viewed as a major agent of political socialization in Philippine culture. The study compares data drawn from major American studies of political socialization with original data collected in the Philippines. The American studies are criticized for their exclusive concern for the development of political values and their lack of attention to the cognitive development and the critical socializing experiences of students. The study suggests that future research in socialization must be concerned with the internal processes of socializing agents and the study advances a set of variables by which the public school might be studied for its impact on the political learning of students.

Data from this study was drawn from student interviews, from tests of political information, from formal and informal student essays and from the observation of Koronadal High School students during the year of intense political activity and crisis in the Philippines. The study finds Koronadal High School students to be highly politicized by a number of measures. The students were also observed to be active in politics.

In general, the students strongly supported decentralized constitutional democracy. They were highly critical of the national political system and they felt highly efficacious in the politics of the local community. Much of the criticism of the students was directed to the Philippine president. The most significant variable influencing the capacity of the school as an agent of political socialization was found to be the school curriculum and the success of the students with the curriculum.

373. STOUTEMYER, John Howard (Ph. D.). "Religion and Race Education." Clark University, 1910. 80 pp. Source: Eells, p. 9; and JOURNAL OF RELIGIOUS PSYCHOLOGY, VII (April, 1915), pp. 1-2.

John Howard Stoutemyer

INTRODUCTION

The word missionary from the Latin and apostle from the Greek are cognate and signify one sent, or one set forth. "A missionary religion," says Max Muller, "is one in which the spreading of the truth and the conversion of unbelievers are raised to the rank of a sacred duty by the founder or by his immediate successors." (Fortnightly Review, July, 1874.) The missionary religion can transcend old local bounds and so be naturalized wherever it is disseminated. Acceptance of the missionary religion becomes for many races the first step in civilization. Christianity was the gateway by which the pagan peoples of western Europe entered the realm of modern civilization. In studying the development of non-Christian peoples there has been no alternative than to trace their rise through the efforts of religious agencies, for until recent centuries there have been no secular educative agencies even in the most advanced nations. More and more is the world becoming a family of races, whose interests are interdependent, and the race children who are still at the school age and need development should be under institutional care. There is yet great need to protect the native races, to afford opportunity for development, and to give the true message that behind the more evident materialism there is dominant a worthy idealism which has been the real rise of our civilization.

The emphasis in this study has been placed on the social and economic factors rather than on what is usually called religious. Not that I disregard the religious factor, but rather that I enlarge the conception of the place and function of religion in the life process. It is only through the successful adjustment of a people to its social and psychical environment, that that people can rise to a higher plane of civilization where it can appreciate the higher qualities of culture and religion. The solution of this problem lies in the blending and balancing of those forces which may be roughly classed as the industrial, political and educative. The industrial is the most primitive and basic, but the greatest in its ultimate influence is the educative. There are many forces working for the education of backward races, but among these, the spread of the missionary religion, especially Christianity, has been the chief organized agency for the engendering of the growth of the immature barbarian into maturer civilization.

374. STUART, Harland Francis (Ed. D.). "The Improvement of Vocational Education in the Philippine Islands." Harvard University, 1932. 547 pp. Source: Table of Contents from Author.

SYNOPSIS

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375. SWAN, Lee Melvin (Ph. D.). "Perceptions, Regarding American Graduate Education, of Filipino Agricultural and Home Economics Graduate Students at Selected Universities in the United States, Their Major Professors, and Their Home-Country Authorities." University of Wisconsin, 1969. 231 pp. Source: DAI, XXX, 9A (March, 1970), 3655-A. XUM Order No. 69-16,993.

Lee Melvin Swan

Purpose

This study was the first phase of a longitudinal project evaluating the effectiveness of American graduate education for Filipino students. The theoretical framework of the long-term project concerns consensus of the foreign student, his major professor, and his home-country authority, regarding the objectives, policies, and procedures of graduate education: it is hypothesized that high consensus among this threesome will enhance the effectiveness of the educational experience in terms of the student's home-country productiveness and interpersonal relationships.

The primary purpose of this segment of the study was to identify the perceptions of Filipino students, American major professors, and home-country authorities within the Philippines regarding American graduate education. Secondly, relationships between background factors of the student and his perceptions of graduate education were investigated. Finally, relationships between high consensus in the individual threesome match on perceptions of graduate education and the dependent variables of student satisfaction and performance in the graduate program were studied.

Procedures or Methods

All Filipino agricultural and home economics graduate students, and their major professors, were interviewed at the ten American land-grant universities having the largest enrollment of such students. In addition individuals named by the students as a potential employer, supervisor, or colleague upon return home (a home-country authority) were interviewed in the Philippines. All interviews were conducted by the author.

As the purpose of this study was to generalize to a larger population of past and future Filipino students, and as it was believed that the study respondents sufficiently represented this larger population, the study group was treated as a "sample in time." Statistical tests applied to the data were: one-way analysis of variance; Scheffe's post-hoc comparisons; Kendall's coefficient of concordance; Pearson product moment correlations.

The number of respondents within each study group included: 113 students, 68 professors 76 home-country authorities.

Results

Evidence found in this study suggested that consensus on perceptions of objectives, policies, and procedures in graduate education among the Filipino student, his major professor, and his home-country authority was an important variable associated with satisfaction and performance in the graduate experience. A consistent tendency was shown for higher consensus threesome matches (of student, professor, and home-country authority), on perceptions of policies and procedures, to contain students who were more satisfied in the American graduate experience. Likewise, the data showed positive relationships between high consensus among threesomes on perceptions of objectives, and high student satisfaction and performance in the graduate program.

Professors were less concerned than home-country authorities in development of special courses and non-credit experiences for the Filipino students. Analysis of study data also revealed that the student's divisional major, his years of work experience, and his years of stay in the United States sojourn, were associated with his perceptions and priorities in the graduate experience. A greater concern for maintaining a home-country orientation in the graduate experience was shown among the social science students, the students having over three and one-half years of professional work experience, and the students who have been in the United States less than three and one-half years.

It was concluded that consensus among the student, his professor, and his home-country authority was a sufficiently important variable to warrant further investigation.

Nathaniel Bautista Tablante

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376. TABLANTE, Nathaniel Bautista (Ph. D.). "An Appraisal of Agricultural Problems and Policies in the Philippines." Purdue University, 1956. 356 pp. Source: DAI, XVII, 7 (1957), 1432-1433. XUM Order No. 19,437.

This report is divided into two main parts. Part I describes the existing situation and points out the major socio-economic problems associated with Philippine agriculture, with the use of background information gathered from secondary sources. Part II comprises an evaluation of agricultural policies, the setting up of general objectives of policy, a consideration of long-range alternative program measures designed to attain the ultimate goal, and the presentation of suggested lines of action which may be carried out in the immediate future to start with.

Agriculture is a fundamental segment of the national economy of the Philippines, considering the large proportion of the total population dependent upon the industry for their livelihood and its contribution to the national income and to the country's foreign trade. While this is so, many problems continue to remain unsolved, thereby retarding the economic development of the country and providing little opportunity for the people to enjoy a high standard of living.

The rapid growth of population continues to bear heavily on the existing resources of the Philippines and production has hardly kept pace with the levels of consumption of an increasing number of people. Agricultural productivity is still at a relatively low level, being the result of the play of numerous closely inter-related forces. The most important of these factors which tend to bring about low agricultural output per person are the use of unscientific farming practices and methods of production, low yields of crops and rates of livestock production, small size of farms, high labor requirements in many farm operations, low available capital per farmer and difficulty of securing productive credit at reasonable terms, unfair tenure arrangements and tenancy practices, and lack of economic opportunities outside of agriculture.

In addition to problems of agricultural production, there also are those problems relating to land use and development, agricultural finance, marketing and foreign trade, and the development of human resources and the improvement of rural living, to mention a few broad categories. The classification, survey and subdivision of lands, the issuance of valid titles to land, and the proper enforcement of laws relating to tenancy have not been effectively carried out, thereby slowing down considerably the program of land settlement and land tenure reform of the government. Credit from established lending institutions is often beyond the reach of small farmers, so that a large proportion of agricultural credit transactions are handled by landlords, merchants and private moneylenders who frequently indulge in unscrupulous practices to the great disadvantage of the farmer-borrowers. There is a lack of an orderly and efficient marketing system; marketing facilities are not adequate and essential marketing services are lacking or are performed inefficiently. As a result many producers do not possess much control over the marketing of their products. With respect to foreign trade, the problems include unfavorable balance of trade, lack of diversification in terms of both products and markets, and changes in commercial and economic relations between the Philippines and other nations. Community facilities and essential services for improved rural living, such as health, education, recreation, public utilities, and means of transportation and communication, are very inadequate in rural areas.

All of these conditions tend to bring about the present low economic status of the farm population of the Philippines. The problems are so closely interrelated to each other that priorities are difficult to assign. This implies that the problems should be approached simultaneously with measures that would be consistent with the general objectives of agricultural policy for the Philippines. These objectives include stability of agricultural incomes and comparability with other groups in society of similar ability, conservation and development of resources, economic progress and efficiency, adequate supplies of food and fiber for the nation's population, maintenance of the family farm, and consistency with the overall policy of the nation and administrative feasibility--all of which move toward the attainment of the master goals of maximizing the social product over time, optimizing the distribution of income, and maintaining responsible freedom of individual action, in a democratic society.

The core of the problem, therefore, revolves around the question of what basic steps the Philippine government should take during the next two or three decades for promoting the best economic interests of the nation and ultimately improving the standard of living of the people. The basic agricultural policies proposed to be carried out to accomplish this objective focus on the long-range adjustments considered necessary and desirable to increase efficiency in agricultural production, to develop an efficient and orderly marketing system for farm products, to improve rural living and to expand nonfarm economic opportunities.

Recognizing that the proper implementation of these policies would require huge appropriations and that the budget of the country has only a limited program-carrying capacity, it is recommended that a starting budget of from 50 million pesos to 60 million pesos in addition to the regular amounts in the national budget be made available. This initial amount would be distributed over a five-year period to start the implementation of the recommended measures. As many of the proposed projects as these funds would allow should be undertaken. Since the recommended courses of action will result in increasing the overall productivity of the nation, more funds would then be available and more projects could be undertaken without necessarily taking a bigger cut of the national budget.

Specifically, the recommendations made concern the improvement and expansion of agricultural research and extension, the improvement of land tenure and settlement, the improvement of agricultural credit, the improvement of marketing and trade, the improvement of general and vocational education, the expansion of nonfarm employment opportunities, and the provision of rural community facilities and services. While all the problems cannot be solved within a short period of time, it would be a wise investment for the Philippine government to initiate as many of the proposed measures as the limited funds would allow. This will move eventually toward the accomplishment of the objective of securing greater productivity and higher standards of living for the Philippines.

377. TADENA, Romualdo Battad (Ph. D.). "Members of the Philippine Bureaucracy as Change Agents." Cornell University, 1969. 318 pp. Source: DAI, XXX, 3A (September, 1969), 1225-A-1226-A. XUM Order No. 69-10,470.

This is a study of the reactions of purposive change agents, or, more specifically, Philippine community development workers, to problems connected with their role as liaison between the bureaucracy and the villagers. The reactions and role are analyzed in the context of a nationwide program to inculcate the self-help concept among the people in rural areas. The objective of the study is to formulate hypotheses and refine measurement techniques.

Much of the study is based on responses to a questionnaire. One hundred ninety-five respondents were selected by proportional random sampling--ten percent of the workers from each of the seven regions into which the Philippines is divided for administrative purposes, were chosen. One hundred fifty-four questionnaires were returned. The discussions on the socio-political-economic conditions in the Philippines are based on secondary sources while the basic philosophy and assumptions of the community development program, the accomplishments of the Presidential Arm of Community Development (PACD), and the qualifications and the selection of the community development workers are based on official records, reports, and community development literature.

The long-run objective of the PACD is to make self-help a dynamic force in the improvement of the rural areas where more than seventy percent of the Filipinos live. A philosophical underpinning of the program is that grant-in-aid projects are generators of self-help activities, and, as such, complement the various kinds of formal and informal training programs conducted by the college-educated workers to widen the perspectives and increase the innovativeness and skills of the rural dwellers. The grant-in-aid projects are supposed to be in accord with the "felt needs" of the villagers. Furthermore, it is assumed that the peasants have an "inherent desire" to improve themselves and have enough resources to put up as counterpart for grant-in-aid and analogous projects intended to satisfy their "felt needs."

The survey data, however, indicate that the Philippine program has built-in contradictions which militate against the achievement of its long-run objective. First of all, the people do not necessarily have a desire to improve themselves and their communities through their own initiative and with their own resources. The popularity of the assistance scheme, the failure of the villagers to maintain or continue a great proportion of their projects, and the inactivity of their associations for community development after a relatively short period of time, indicate either or both their continued reliance on the government and their inability to sustain interest in community development undertakings. Secondly, the "felt needs" of the rural folks at times become secondary only to the projects emphasized by the PACD to help attain socio-economic national goals.

Thirdly, the organizational arrangement for community development reinforces the traditional dependency syndrome. In a predominantly two-class society where the elite control both economic and political power and where the peasants have been conditioned to look up to the landlords, their political allies, and the government for their well-being, the hierarchical system for the requesting and approving of project assistance opens another avenue for the mediation of influentials and the entry of partisan politics. This, and the involvement of the technical service agencies, the changes in program emphases and project requirements, the relatively rapid spatial movement of personnel, the lack of skill of the villagers to prepare forms properly, their failure to comply with project guidelines because of their ignorance and poverty, and the spreading too thinly of PACD resources, have caused either the disapproval of requests for assistance or delay in the processing of project proposals and the release of the government's assistance. As a consequence of all these, the majority of the villagers lost their enthusiasm for community improvement.

Finally, there are indications that the employment of upward mobile college-educated workers in the rural areas does not necessarily ensure the success of the program although, to a minor extent, such may have helped relieve the chronic unemployment in the country. The low salary scale, the discrepancy between perceived actual and preferred bases of efficiency ratings, and the lack of congruence among role definitions, perceived role expectations, and actual roles played in problem situations seem to indicate the stresses under which the workers operate.

378. TADENA, Tomas P. (Ed. D.). "A Proposed Audio Visual Program for the University of the Philippines." Indiana University, 1956. 265 pp. Source: DAI, XVII, 1 (January, 1957), 83. XUM Order No. 19,284.

The Problem

This study proposes an audio visual program for the University of the Philippines and presents alternative approaches toward its attainment, based on successful audio visual practices and their underlying principles as indicated by literature and research and adapted to suit local conditions in the Philippines.

Procedure

Audio visual programs reported in literature and research studies were analyzed. Generally accepted successful practices were gathered and the principles underlying them drawn out. These practices and principles were synthesized and adapted to conditions obtaining in the Philippines in general and in the University of the Philippines in particular. Then a proposed audio visual program for the University of the Philippines was outlined and reasons for proposing such a program were given. Alternate approaches were presented as ways of implementing the proposed audio visual program.

Findings

The audio visual program in a university is generally organized under the Extension Division or in the School of Education. All activities are centralized in one department under one head.

The audio visual program receives an annual allotment from the university budget supplemented by income from rental and service fees and the sale of university-produced films and filmstrips. Insufficient funds is the most frequently reported deterrent to the rapid growth of audio visual programs. A revolving fund system of financing some services of the audio visual program, like the film library and motion picture production, have been found successful.

The size of the staff of an audio visual center is determined by the extent of its services. The minimum staff for even a small program consists of a director, one clerk-stenographer, and one technician. The director is identified with the faculty and given academic rank. Students are generally employed as assistants and helpers.

The professional education function of the audio visual program is generally emphasized, which includes both pre-service and in-service training of teachers. Materials service and production are also important functions of the program.

Some factors that could affect an audio visual program in the University of the Philippines are the following:

a. Highly centralized organization, administration, and financing of the public schools.

b. Lack of locally produced educational films and filmstrips.

c. Lack of personnel with special preparation in audio visual education.

d. Inadequate budget for the University of the Philippines and the public schools.

Conclusions

1. The administrative location of the audio visual center in the College of Education of the University of the Philippines is in line with general practices in American universities.

2. The present personnel, materials, equipment, and facilities of the audio visual center are fairly adequate for starting an audio visual program in the University of the Philippines.

3. There is a need for audio visual specialists to teach in normal schools, teachers colleges, and education departments in universities in the Philippines.

4. The National Media Production Center and the Bureau of Public Schools have audio visual facilities which could be profitably utilized by the University of the Philippines.

Recommendations

1. The University of the Philippines should have an integrated audio visual program with teacher education, campus and off-campus materials service, and production.

2. The emphasis in teacher education should be on the graduate level in order to meet the demand for instructors of audio visual courses in normal schools, teachers colleges and education departments of universities.

3. The University of the Philippines should arrange with the National Media Production Center to have the latter's audio visual facilities available to its advanced audio visual students.

4. The University of the Philippines should consider the 10-year teacher education, materials service, and financing plan proposed in this study.

379. TAMANO, Datu Mauyag Marohom (Ed. D.). "A Plan for a Com-

Datu Mauyag Marohom Tamano

munity College System for Mindanao State University Designed to Meet the Observed Needs of the Maranaos for Integration and Development." Stanford University, 1969. 280 pp. Source: DAI, XXX, 8A (February, 1970), 3260-A-3261-A. XUM Order No. 70-1640.

This study has a twofold purpose:

1. It examines some of the major problems besetting the Republic of the Philippines regarding the lack of integration between the Maranaos, a Philippine Muslim ethnolinguistic people, and the Christian Filipinos who comprise the vast majority of the population of the country.

2. It sets forth a plan for a community college system, under the auspices of Mindanao State University, which will be designed to provide the Maranaos with an education that will enable them to enter as skilled workmen the emerging agro-industrial economy of Mindanao. The need for higher educational opportunities for Maranaos is an urgent one, but previous attempts to meet that need have met with limited success. Thus the relevance of the purposes become obvious, which is to promote the political, socio-cultural, economic, and educational integration of the Maranaos within the Philippine national community in context of modernization while preserving the cultural identity.

The first chapter of the dissertation consists of an overview of Maranao malintegration into the cultural matrix of the Philippines. The problem is examined from five perspectives: historical, political, economic, socio-cultural, and educational.

Chapter II examines the history of efforts made to promote integration. The history covers a period of time starting with 1903, excluding the centuries of Spanish rule for the simple reason that no efforts were made to integrate the Maranaos with the rest of the country during that period. Indeed, much of the problem can be said to have started during those long years, for it was then that the Maranaos acquired their reputation of being "different" and difficult to assimilate into an evolving Philippine society. Some progress in providing education for the Maranaos was made during the American period, but the impetus slowed during the Pacific War and the years following. It has been only in recent years that the government has again been able to give full attention to the pressing needs in the Maranao and Muslim areas.

The third chapter of the study examines in detail Maranao social structure, again from the aspects of the historical, political, economic, socio-cultural, and educational. The Maranao people are of the Islamic faith, and this has affected attitudes toward education, as has their political system.

Chapter IV discusses some of the effects of the new and rapidly expanding industrialization on the Maranaos. Since the construction of the hydro-electric plant at Maria Cristina Falls, a number of plants and factories have been put into operation in the Iligan City area. These plants have created a need for large numbers of trained manpower, but much of it is being met by importing workers elsewhere, because the Maranaos lack the necessary training to fill the jobs.

Chapter V sets forth in detail a plan for establishing two community colleges. One is to be located in Iligan City, and its curriculum will be primarily slanted toward filling the manpower needs of the growing industries in that area. The second community college, to be located in the Basak area, will provide programs largely devoted to agricultural and fisheries technologies.

The methods used in this study were historical and ethnographic. Much of the ethnographic coverage was based upon the field work of the writer among the Maranaos. Methods used in studying the Maranaos were Redfield's folk-urban continuum (1956:81) and such methods as "prolonged participant-observation" (Zamora 1967:71). The writer also completed a six-month field research project in the Maranao areas in 1968, and made a brief but intensive visitation of Japanese community colleges. In addition, a number of carefully selected community colleges in the United States were studied. This survey took the form of personal visits, interviews with administrators and faculty members, and research of college documents as well as other pertinent literatures.

On the basis of these investigations, the author believes that the Maranaos can become an integral part of the Philippine economy, polity, and society without losing their own cultural identity. It is assumed that, in time, many of the beautiful and constructive values of the Maranao-Muslim culture will be accepted by all segments of the Philippine society as their own national culture. The prime factor in this integration will be education--of both Maranaos and other Filipinos--about Maranaos. The proposed community college system will be one of the social instruments for achieving the goals of integration and of filling the acute need for skilled manpower. The plan for the community colleges is quite feasible, since both Iligan City and the Basak area have the resources, the school population, the burgeoning industries, and the cultural atmosphere which are characteristics for the success of a functional community college system.

380. TAN, Allen Li (Ph. D.). "Contentment and Change in a Philippine Setting." Cornell University, 1974. 115 pp. Source: DAI, XXXV, 8B (February, 1975), 4262-B. XUM Order No. 75-4270.

This report is part of a larger study on changes in personality, values, and world view as a function of social change. The specific focus has been on individual contentment or satisfaction with life as a function of an improvement in the quality of life.

Father-son pairs from four different groups of people were chosen for study in a 4 x 2 factorial design. Group A included peasant fathers and peasant sons, Group B included upwardly mobile families with peasant fathers and sons going through college, Group C included fathers who were peasants turned entrepreneurs with sons in college, and Group D included fathers who were peasants turned professionals with sons in college.

A measure of contentment was obtained from the subjects through the use of a ladder scale. An analysis of variance performed on this measure revealed that the upwardly mobile Group B subjects were most contented, followed by the Group C entrepreneurs and Group D professionals, with the Group A peasants least contented with their lots.

These findings provided an opportunity to test two different sets of hypotheses against naive notions of drive reduction. The first of these was the revolution of rising expectations hypothesis which traces its roots to relative deprivation theory. The hypothesis states that as things get better, people start expecting more from life, and are ultimately frustrated when these expectations are unfulfilled. Hence, as the quality of life improves, discontent increases. Conceptually, the hypothesis could be divided into two steps. First, a broadening of comparative groups occurs when people start becoming upwardly mobile. Some empirical evidence was presented to show that this was actually happening among our upwardly mobile Group B subjects. Secondly, the hypothesis assumes that the upwardly mobile people will tend to compare themselves with those who are better off than themselves, resulting in feelings of frustration. This second assumption was disconfirmed by our Philippine data in that the upwardly mobile group actually proved to be more contented than the non-changing peasant group. On the contrary, simple, intuitive notions of drive reduction were found to provide a better explanation for the findings.

The other hypothesis tested was one derived from various fulfillment models of personality. Fulfillment theorists generally speak of at least two levels of human motivation: basic survival needs and actualization or "growth" needs. Correspondingly, contentment may be thought of on these two levels. Data was available as to what the four groups of subjects value most in life. Analyses of these data reveal that Group A valued safety most, Group B esteem, and Groups C and D actualization or "growth." These data could be interpreted to mean that contentment may mean different things to different groups. Such a two (or more) step model of contentment was found to be better able to explain the pattern of contentment found among the four groups of subjects tested in the Philippines.

Lastly, some of the implications of these findings were discussed with regard to the eagerness of some "underdeveloped" nations to get "developed" and improve the standard of living among the masses. Further data were introduced to argue that campaigns against fatalistic attitudes among peasants should be accompanied by real existing opportunities for advancement in living. It was also pointed out that fatalistic attitudes and self-degradation could be playing a healthy, adaptive role among the peasants.

381. TAN, Antonio S. (Ph. D.). "The Emergence of Philippine Chinese National And Political Consciousness, 1880-1935." University of California, Berkeley, 1969. 582 pp. Source: DAI, XXX, 10A (April, 1970), 4390-A. XUM Order No. 70-6237.

The purpose of this study has been to show and analyze the emergence of the national and political consciousness of the Chinese in the Philippines in the first three and half decades of this century.

Until the turn of the twentieth century, to speak of the Philippine Chinese generally, nationalism is a word not found in their vocabulary. Despite existing sentimental and cultural ties, the political orientation of the Chinese in the Philippines was not directed towards China. Since the turn of the century, however, successive governments in China had shown an increasing interest in the Chinese abroad, and the Overseas Chinese had become more and more involved in the political affairs of their homeland.

The study begins with a brief examination of the Chinese in the Philippines during the Spanish era. This background study constituting Part One intends to provide a historical setting of the Chinese position and an examination of their common dissatisfaction arising out of the various restrictions the Spanish colonial authorities imposed upon them in the 19th century. The cumulative effect of the economic, social and legal discrimination on the Chinese was to make them feel more conscious of their status as a minority people.

The second, and main part which covers the American era in the Philippines, examines the reasons and complexities of the shift in attitude of the Chinese in the Philippines from a comparatively passive sentimental attachment to the land and culture of China to a dynamic and political identification to the Chinese nation. It begins with Chapter IV which shows why the budding of national consciousness already in evidence before 1898 would burst into flower under the concurrence of reformist-modernist-revolutionist influences from China. It also explains how the paradoxical stimulus of the liberal frame of the American regime and the factor of common grievance arising out of the American application of the exclusion law to the Philippines promoted that national consciousness. Chapter V is devoted to the organization and development of new Chinese organizations and institutions such as the press, the school, and other agencies which sought to unify and mobilize the Philippine Chinese. Chapter VI describes the Philippine Chinese response to homeland politics and illustrates the eloquent manifestations of their patriotism. Chapter VII deals with the Chinese in the Philippines and Fukien Province and shows the interplay of two competing patriotisms: local and national. Chapter VIII examines how the simultaneous growth of two nationalisms, Chinese and Filipino, in one country set in motion the vicious circle: Chinese nationalism increased Filipino hostility, which in turn made the Chinese more conscious of their identify as a minority group. Chapter IX, the concluding chapter, shows why the establishment of the Philippine Commonwealth in the views of the Filipinos, requires a reexamination of the Chinese position in the light of the right of the Filipinos to govern themselves politically, and to be master of their own country, economically. This period saw the Philippine government taking steps to restrict Chinese economic power.

382. TANDOC, Florangel Sevidal (Ph. D.). "Suggestions for Improving the In-Service Education Program of High School Home Economics Teachers in Luzon, Philippines."

Florangel Sevidal Tandoc

Michigan State University, 1962. 152 pp. Source: DAI, XXIII, 4 (October, 1962), 1285. XUM Order No. 62-4469.

The Problem

This study was a survey of the status of the home economics teachers in-service education program in Luzon, Philippines. It was made:

1. To find out what educational practices and procedures are used to improve the competencies of teachers.
2. To determine the adequacies and inadequacies of the present program with reference to proposed principles of in-service teacher education.

Method, Technique and Data

Data were obtained from 18 division school superintendents, 16 high school principals, 25 home economics supervisors and 22 home economics teachers through the use of questionnaire forms. The questionnaires were an adaptation of those used by Vossbrink in a similar study. Analysis of the responses from the school personnel was made by using frequency count, percentage and rank order.

Findings and Conclusions

Results of the study indicated some agreement among school administrators on the present in-service educational practices and procedures.

School administrators agreed that in-service training was a regular assignment to the teachers' program. The time provided varied considerably and was not sufficient to insure good results. There was disagreement on whether the people involved in the pre-planning period were paid or not.

The most important factor which determined the content of the in-service education program were the needs, interests and problems of teachers. The needs of the teachers involved:

a. Teaching equipment and materials.

b. Professional improvement.

c. Procedures in teaching.

d. Program planning.

e. Evaluation of the program and student progress.

The most common device used to arrive at these needs was observation.

The present in-service teacher education program made provisions for:

a. Taking care of teachers with varying abilities in several ways.

b. Checking program accomplishment and teacher growth.

In general, there was agreement that the present program was long range and continuous. It utilized relevant community resources in promoting and carrying out the various experiences. Out of the thirteen learning experiences provided in the present program, intervisitation was the most common, while correspondence work was the least chosen. School administrators were not of the opinion that school committees were acceptable techniques of in-service education.

The Bureau of Public Schools assumed leadership in initiating the program. A great deal of leadership was received from the Bureau, while less supervision came from the division superintendent of schools. Home economics teachers recommended modification and elimination of some present supervisory practices.

The adequacies of the present program were:

a. It was a cooperative undertaking based upon the existing local social environment.

b. Flexibility of operation was provided.

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c. The local school system contributed a great deal to the creation of a suitable learning environment.

d. A variety of learning experiences was provided which contribute to the attainment of several purposes.

e. Methods were centered on group action.

The inadequacies of the program were:

a. It lacked emphasis upon local school responsibility.

b. Individuals were singled out for leadership.

c. Program evaluation was limited in type and use.

d. The program did not tend to improve the processes and products of instruction.

e. Participation of teachers in the planning process was limited.

Based upon the findings, some suggestions were made for the over-all improvement of the home economics teachers in-service education program.

383. TATE, Chester Neal (Ph. D.). "The Social Background, Political Recruitment, and Decision-Making of the Philippine Supreme Court Justices, 1901-1968." Tulane University, 1971. 318 pp. Source: DAI, XXXII, 2A (August, 1971), 1044-A-1045-A. XUM Order No. 71-20,232.

Numerous observers have emphasized the impact of the Philippine Supreme Court as an important legitimizing institution and major public policy maker. Despite its apparent importance, the Court has rarely been the subject of empirical social research. This dissertation seeks to provide an initial exploration of the recruitment and decision-making of its justices.

The social background and recruitment of the justices is treated first. To elucidate the factors most relevant to recruitment to the Supreme Court, the characteristics of its justice are compared with the characteristics of other judicial elites, the Philippine political elite, and an especially relevant "control group," the justices of the Court of Appeals who have not won appointment to the Supreme Court. The Supreme Court justices are found to come from high status, politically active families, and to have more prestigious and extensive education than the control group. They experienced a variety of career activities. A plurality were appointed from the top of the judicial hierarchy and a substantial majority had judicial experience prior to appointment. But their total career patterns indicate that appointment to the Supreme Court is not reserved for "career judges," despite popular norms favoring the recruitment of such judges. Career judges are more common among the control group.

The decision-making of the justices is next examined. The focus of this examination is upon conflict in judicial voting behavior. The expression of conflict--measured by the number of split decisions rendered annually--varied considerably over the years, but declined drastically in the last decade. Generally, periods of high expression of conflict coincided with periods of conflict over major issues in the total political system. Further evidence suggests that heterogeneity of judicial background is positively related to the expression of voting conflict. Possible explanations for the recent drastic decline in dissent include the increased relevance of the Filipino values of "social acceptance" due to the absence of stressful historical circumstances, the influence of recent chief justices, the relationship of the Court to other governmental institutions, and the Court's workload and procedures.

The structure of voting conflict is examined through bloc analysis. In the colonial period (1901-1935) conflict was found to be structured along nationality lines, with a cohesive Filipino minority opposing an individualistic American majority. In the Commonwealth and early post-war periods (1935-1954) conflict was less highly structured. Few cohesive blocs were discovered. In the most recent period, the structure of Supreme Court voting gives evidence of opposing blocs, perhaps differing on a liberalism dimension.

Finally, an attempt is made to test the effectiveness of background characteristics as predictors of two voting responses: tendency to dissent and tendency to support criminal defendants' claims. In multiple regression models, combinations of six to eight variables are found to explain from one-sixth to four-tenths of the variation in voting.

384. TIANGCO, Nenita-Fe Mantano (Ph. D.). "A Study of the Retionships Among Philippine Biology Teachers' Personality Attributes, Their Understanding and Knowledge of Science, and Student Learning in Science." New York University, 1973. 129 pp. Source: DAI, XXXIV, 12A, Part 1 (June, 1974), 7633-A. XUM Order No. 74-12,870.

This investigation was designed to examine the relationships among teachers' personality attributes, their understanding of science and knowledge of science, and student learning in science in a city sample of Philippine biology classes.

The major hypotheses tested were:

1. An overall positive correlation exists between teachers' personality attributes and teachers' understanding of science and knowledge of science.

2. An overall positive correlation exists between teachers' personality attributes and students' understanding of science and knowledge of science.

3. The overall correlation between teachers' personality attributes and the students' mean scores is not different for male and female students.

Selected as predictor variables in the rationale of the study were fourteen personality attributes from five selected personality instruments, namely: Association Adjustment Inventory (AAI); Gordon Personal Inventory (GPI);

Gordon Personal Profile (GPP); Study of Values (SVL); and the Teacher Attitude Scale (TAS). The last instrument is Philippine-made. Of the two criterion variables, teacher understanding of science was measured by the Test on Understanding Science (TOUS), and teacher knowledge of science, by the Nelson Biology Test (NBT). Student learning in science was measured by also the same instruments.

All the pertinent instruments were administered to the 100 (94 female, 6 male) teacher samples and to the 5460 (2520 male and 2940 female) randomly selected student samples forming the pretest and no-pretest groups from 24 public secondary schools in Manila, Philippines. Computerized canonical variate and stepwise regression analyses were major statistical techniques utilized.

Findings confirmed the major hypotheses and seem to warrant the following conclusions:

1. There is a significant overall positive relationship between teachers' personality attributes and teachers' understanding of science and knowledge of science as measured by the TOUS and NBT. The Permissive Teacher Attitude and the Theoretical (negative) Scales appear to validly predict teachers' understanding of science and knowledge of science. The former is the single most significant and reliable predictor; the latter holds some potential for predicting effective science understanding as measured by the TOUS.

2. There is a significant overall positive relationship between teachers' personality attributes and student learning in science as measured by the TOUS and NBT. Responsibility and Sociability validly predict student learning in science. The former appears to be the single most significant and reliable predictor for student learning in science. The degree of relationship with teachers' personality attributes is not different for males and females but the nature of covariation seems, decidedly, more complex for females than for males. More personality attributes affect the variance of the female criterion variables, which are namely: Personal Relations, Emotional Stability, Original Thinking, Theoretical, Rigid-Flexible, and Sociopathic-Empathetic.

3. There is no sensitization or pretesting effect, based on comparisons of the pretest and no-pretest student groups on both criterion variables.

4. The students' scores on the two criterion variables have a very high positive intercorrelation compared to the correlation between the teachers' scores on the same variables.

5. In general, the TOUS scores appear to be more predictable from the personality attributes than is the NBT.

385. TIRO, Aurelio Amores (Ed. D.). "Existing Guidance Practices in Selected Elementary Schools of the United States and Their Implications for the Philippines." University of Denver, 1956. 158 pp. Source: Eells, p. 123; and dissertation, pp. 1-6.

ABSTRACT

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to gain a working understanding of the guidance phase of the elementary school program through examination of practices of "better-than-average" guidance programs and to select principles, techniques and procedures which would seem appropriate for elementary schools in the Philippines after giving due regard to the fundamental differences between that country and the United States.

Information on the practices of "better-than-average" guidance programs was obtained through questionnaires filled out by heads of the schools selected by either the State Supervisors of Guidance Services or Superintendents of Schools on the basis of:

1. Maintenance of "better-than-average" guidance programs.
2. Diversity of student population.
3. Variance in socio-economic setting.

4. Geographical representation.

The information from these questionnaires supplemented that of the literature.

Guidance in determining the manner in which the data were to be treated was obtained from the implications of the basic assumptions adopted at the start of the investigation which were:

1. Effective Guidance Practices and Theories may be classified and identified under the following headings:

    a. Organization and administration
    b. Individual inventory service
    c. Information service
    d. Counseling service
    e. Placement service
    f. Follow-up service

2. The practices found functional and effective by schools in a country can be used to advantage by schools of another country if due consideration is given to such factors as cultural background, school population makeup, social-economic setting, and administrative set-up.

The practices were analyzed in the light of factors obtaining in the Philippines that should condition their adoption. The analysis revealed that practices of "better-than-average" guidance programs in this country either have immediate or later applicability in Philippine elementary schools.

The principles and practices considered immediately applicable were:

Organization and Administration

1. The organizational set-up of the guidance program is suited to local conditions.

2. A simple type of organization fits local conditions more easily.

3. The organizational structure is headed by the administrative head not only because his support is essential to an efficiently functioning program but also because the program should advantageously be an integral part of the entire school program.

4. The organizational set-up must bring about integration and coordination.

5. All services are integrated under the direction of one man or agency to bring about coordination.

6. Duties of these performing guidance functions in elementary schools are clearly defined and assigned to particular staff members.

7. An organized guidance program includes an in-service education program to provide teachers opportunities to grow in competence.

8. The in-service education program is established on the basis of the needs and interests of the participants.

9. The approach to or instruction in the component subject matter areas above is such that teacher attitude is developed to the point that she views guidance services as necessary aids to the attainment of the objective of education, the fullest development of the whole child, not as additional burden.

10. The guidance program maintains a harmonious relationship with the home so that it will adopt a cooperative attitude in the joint responsibility of developing a well-adjusted child.

Individual Inventory Service

1. The information in individual inventories must be cumulative in nature so that a developmental pattern would be portrayed.

2. The keeping of individual inventories must be initiated in the first grade and continued through the last grade in the elementary school.

3. Test results are interpreted to pupils and parents by the teacher or principal when they are ready, willing and able to take action.

Information Service

1. Gradual exposures to the occupations is necessary in the elementary school considering not only the demand of the current Philippine situation for specialization but also the large percentage of early school leavers.

2. The integration of occupation units with school subjects has rich possibilities because it makes the latter meaningful to the learner and it can be a means of unifying all the activities listed above as illustrated in Chapter III of this work.

3. Educational orientation information includes school rules, policies, procedures, and regulations; physical plant and facilities; school personnel; special services available to the pupils; the school curriculum; and the co-curricular program.

4. Social orientation is an obligation of the school.

5. The kind of social orientation information that elementary school pupils need varies widely in different communities and with their age levels.

6. Social orientation covers courtesy, etiquette, good grooming, origin of life, the way one acts, and how to get along with others.

7. The orientation program should reach all pupils in a new school situation.

8. Orientation is a continuing process.

Placement Service

1. Placement in the elementary school is concerned with the placement of pupils in co-curricular activities, in appropriate in-school and community activities related to units of work, in groups with whom to work and play, and in further educational opportunities.

2. Placement must contribute to the development of individual effectiveness.

3. Placement assistance is based upon knowledge of pupil abilities, interests and needs.

4. Placement is a planned function of the school.

5. Teachers have an important role in in-school and community placement.

Follow-up Service

1. The follow-up service ties up with the placement service rendered.

2. A follow-up study is democratically planned and carried out.

Counseling Service

1. Counseling is assisting an individual to discover his own assets and limitations and helping him make choices and adjustments that will contribute most to those adjustments making for success.

2. The teacher is the counselor of children in the class she is in charge of.

3. Teacher-counselors need released time from their teaching schedule for counseling purposes and a place guaranteeing privacy during counseling situations.

4. Counseling is provided not only for the maladjusted but also for normal children.

5. Counseling requires a number of supporting services like the individual inventory, the information service, and the placement and follow-up services.

A long range plan was presented in anticipation of the favorable effect upon Philippine elementary school guidance programs that the economic and educational development and the consequent amelioration of the Philippine society will bring about. The plan included:

1. The role of collegiate normal schools in the training of competent counselors.

2. Certification of counselors by provincial or national agencies.

3. Provincial and national participation in the areas of

   a. Research.

   b. Dissemination of information to counselors of individual schools.

   c. Distribution of tests and other aids to effective counseling.

   d. Conducting of conferences for counselors and other pupil personnel workers.

4. Role of professors of education and psychology in the colleges and universities of the Philippines.

386. TODD, Arthur James (Ph. D.). "The Family in Primitive Education." Yale University, 1911. Source: Published; Same Title; N.Y.: G.P. Putnam's Sons, 1913, pp. 226-230.

General Summary and Conclusion

We are perhaps now in a position to determine the net results of the "appeal to the past" made by the protagonists of familial instruction as the type and basis of all education.

1. In the first place it is plain that much of primitive education is self-education. The various agencies of instruction only aid the process of self-learning. For with Professor Dewey we believe that "in the educational transaction, the initiative lies with the learner even more than in commerce it lies with the buyer." But it is equally clear that primitive men did not relegate the learner wholly to the school of experi-

ence; and that very early in the world's history they began to short-cut experience and formulate it into more or less definite subjects, methods, and agencies of instruction.

2. In Chapter I we saw that primitive conditions surrounding the struggle for existence, and savage mental outfit, were scarcely favorable to an exalted ideal of family life; nor did they permit of orderly family instruction. The obscure sense of personality, fleeting memory, dullness of sensibilities, and other traits were not calculated to admit of much in the way of conscious, reflective education, familial or otherwise.

3. In Chapters II and III it developed that the marital bond originated and endured, not primarily for the benefit of the offspring, but rather for the advantage of the parents. Women and children were usually sought after as aids in the struggle for life, not for themselves, or for the mere pleasure of their company. The economic equaled, and perhaps even subordinated, the genesic or procreative motives. Indeed, it is probably true that the primary interests of husband and wife, of parent and child, were, and still remain, antagonistic, and could only be brought into harmony by the pressure of other interests and forces. The content of both marital and parental relations has always been largely a social matter; biology furnishes the minimum measure, but society must fill it up and give it flavor. Furthermore, monogamic pairing, which is usually assumed by the supporters of familial education, is by no means proved. The evidence points to the reverse, and establishes at least that primitive marriage was either so unstable, or organized on such a basis as to preclude that free play of parental influence so essential to home education.

4. If monogamous pairing is not an innate instinct, nor even a thoroughly acquired characteristic, no more are the parental and filial relations genuine instincts. In Chapter IV we saw the hazy notions of kinship and relationship entertained by primitive peoples. We saw that a full triangular relationship between parents themselves, between each of them and the child, and between the child and both his parents, is a com-

paratively late development. We noted the strong sense of clan or tribal kinship predominating over what we consider the natural relationships. Certain devices and fictions (e.g., couvade) had to be involved to establish the latter. Abundant evidence was produced in Chapter V to prove that primitive parental regard and affection were rather biologic, emotional, self-gratifying, than rational or conducive to the child's own welfare. Still further, it was shown that in many cases parental love and care were utterly lacking. And, what is still more to the point, that primitive parenthood, loving or otherwise, brought with it, per se, no capacity for maintaining the child's life or giving him adequate and fitting nurture. Again, the child was in general regarded as a plaything, or a merchantable thing, or a thing out of which service might be extracted. And on the side of the child, it appeared that filial attachment and respect were not innate instincts, but only developed with the general advance of intelligence and feeling. On the whole, we concluded from this portion of our study that the function of the primitive family was rather biologic and economic than educational. Furthermore, in Chapters VI and VII by a study, through comparison and elimination, of forces and agencies actually at work in primitive education, we found that the aim, the content, the methods, and the organization of primitive instruction were predominantly public and communal in their nature; and that the family occupied only a subordinate position in education. Even the province where domestic education appeared at its best, viz., vocational instruction, is often invaded by group agencies. And the various puberty ceremonies, initiations, and paraphernalia of moral instruction, which we found to be supremely important, are pre-eminently group activities. In practically every case, save where the group coincided with the family, we found the group as the constant background and arbiter of the individual's training; and this held good, whether education was mere unconscious imitation and absorption, or whether it had been crystallized and consciously administered by appropriate agencies. Finally, it cannot be blinked that very frequently traits and habits fostered, or at least permitted, by family training, were distinctly inimical to both social and individual welfare, and that other group agencies were burdened with the task of overlaying or extirpating them. We in no wise pretend to have drawn all the educational or sociological conclusions from the evidence presented. Suffice it to have shown that those who would make the family the type and foundation of all education, "because it is the unit and basis of society," or "because it is divine and therefore a priori superior to any other educational institution," or because "it has always been so," are really spending their time and energy, like the great fish Jasaconius of Irish monastery legend, in chasing their tails.

It seems perfectly evident that the structure and function of the family have changed and may continue to change. With regard to its future as a social institution we shall not hazard a dogmatic assumption. But until "spiritual conception" becomes the rule instead of the legendary exception, until that millennium breaks upon a regenerated world where universal brotherhood is a reality and not a metaphor, until then the family, perhaps more or less modified from its present form, will remain one of our greatest, even though not model, educational assets. And we will save ourselves from much fruitless endeavor to evoke from social institutions educational services which they cannot yield, we will spare ourselves much criticism of these institutions because of their inability to rise to our demands, we will promote the efficiency of other institutions, by frankly admitting the educational limitations of family life. It is altogether likely that social evolution is bringing about a somewhat new division of labor among social institutions, and that to the family will be allotted a more transcendent and valuable role than it has heretofore played. How largely educational that role will be is a matter rather of speculation than prediction.

387. TORRANCE, Arthur Frederick (Ph. D.). "The Philippine Moro: A Study in Social and Race Pedagogy." New York University, 1917. 202 pp. Source: Eells, p. 123; and Library of Congress Microfilm 4919/DS.

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388. TOVERA, David Garcia (Ph. D.). "A History of English Teaching in the Philippines: From Unilingualism to Bilingualism." Northwestern University, 1975. 192 pp. Source: DAI, XXXVI, 7A (January, 1976), 4191-A. XUM Order No. 75-29,771.

The purpose of the study was to bring to the surface those factors that have contributed to the introduction and development of the teaching of English in the Philippine educational system. By virtue of its educational policy, the American colonial administration started using it as medium of instruction. But this exclusive use of the alien language was contested in the later periods until the Philippine government evolved a language policy elevating the native national language, Pilipino, to coexist with the English language.

The Americans had found the Philippines to be a multilingual country and so the need for a common language was of prime importance to them. Spanish was spoken by a few and no major vernacular had been developed.

The historical method of research was used in the identification of these factors. Sources of information came from United States government documents, Philippine Bureau of Education reports, circulars of school officials at the helm of educational affairs, reports of educational survey teams and missions to the Islands, and periodicals.

The acceptance of American sovereignty and of the goals of the American administration in the archipelago provided the background for the initial teaching of English. To the Filipino, it meant gaining access to government jobs, to the rich store of western arts, literature and sciences, and to a knowledge of democratic ideas. English, too, was becoming fast a medium of trade and commerce between Manila and her neighbors. And more important, the language had a levelling influence in society, a contrast during the Spanish regime when caciquism prevailed. The propagation of the language was effected not only through the schools but also through government instrumentalities and the media.

Optimism ran high among Filipino leaders, especially the nationalists, that someday English would be the common language and that it would be a factor for the national solidarity of the Filipinos.

But doubts about achieving the goal were raised in the first extensive education survey in the Philippines in 1925. These doubts were attributed to lack of models, inadequate teaching materials, insufficient funds, lack of supervision, unsatisfactory teaching methods--to name some. The policy of using English, however, remained.

A shift in the language policy began to appear in the 1934 Constitutional Convention when delegates, rising above their regional linguistic differences, voted for a search of a native common language. Executive leadership during the Commonwealth period paved the way for Tagalog to be the basis for the common language, which shall become also an official language by 1946, the date of independence. The brief Japanese occupation of the Islands spreading the gospel of Asia for the Asians intensified the dissemination of Tagalog but it failed to obliterate American influence in the country.

The postwar years saw the emergence of diploma mills and the deterioration of English instruction. Educational surveys and studies identified the language problem as a serious one. A UNESCO study on fundamental education favored the use of the vernacular in the first two grades and the use of English as medium beginning in the third grade. The community school movement geared to increasing the literacy rate recommended strongly the use of the vernacular. Research supported this recommendation.

The school system was headed for bilingualism with the adoption of a language policy in the late 50's. Under attack in the Constitutional Convention in 1971 and by pro-English elements, Pilipino survived as an official language. The New Society under President Ferdinand Marcos has emphasized the need for bilingualism.

The study shows that the teaching of English in the Philippines has been intertwined with the political, economic, educational and cultural life of the country, and that the shift to bilingualism has been motivated by a strong sense of nationalism and internationalism.

Ricardo Diosdado Trimillos

389. TRIMILLOS, Ricardo Diosdado (Ph. D.). "Tradition and Repertoire in the Cultivated Music of the Tausug of Sulu, Philippines." University of California, Los Angeles, 1972. 646 pp. Source: DAI, XXXII, 12A, Part I (June, 1972), 7035-A. XUM Order No. 72-18,144.

The present study of Tausug cultivated music investigates its identity as cultural object and as sound organisation. The culture structures its music into a number of traditions defined by social context; analysis of the music as sound generates a number of repertoires based upon musical-technical parameters. Thus, the two identities are different in viewpoint, rationale, and origin; they provide a broad basis for the consideration of this music. The two identities are not complementary universes of experience. Rather they interpenetrate one another at many points, at different levels and in various degrees. The organisation of sound is structured by principles imposed by the culture, which in turn exploits and supports it. The study seeks to articulate the musical structure and its content-contextual relationship to Tausug society.

The study is discussed as part of the body of knowledge available for Filipino musics with attention to cultures documented and types of studies represented. Further it is presented as a methodological model and contrasted with models found in existing documents. The field methodology includes in situ collection and interview collection of sound data and social data, participation in music-making, and programs for indigenous evaluation of music performance. Laboratory methodology includes analytical transcription and pitch measurement. A taxonomic hierarchy of musical traditions and a diagram of interaction for musical repertoire and cultural tradition summarise the methodological structure. The entire study uses the indigenous bias as point of departure for social and musical analysis.

Tausug society organises music as an object of culture into a group of named musical traditions, each with its own performance context. There are two settings--formal, in which music is listened to, and informal, in which it is only heard. Although not critical to any other activity, music is supported through transmission systems for music learning, a specialised music personnel status and an instrument industry. Further, the society affects the musical product through performance setting, cycles (diurnal, lunar and annual) of music performance, audience behavior, evaluative systems and modes of transmission. Sex segmentation and the aspects of courting and magic are also part of society's support and exploitation.

Examination of the musical product yields three analytically-derived groupings termed "practices"--vocal, instrumental and vocal-instrumental. Features of the vocal practice include a pentatonic orientation, rhythmic organisation by proportion rather than meter, melodic generation based upon a structural line, melodic expansion through infixing, monophonic texture, and melodic identity by pitch degree rather than pitch frequency. The instrumental practice is highly contrastive. Its features include a heptatonic orientation, rhythmic organisation based upon meter and the negation of meter, a movable beat referent, the ambiguity of pulse and beat, melodic generation based upon stereotyped motives, and a texture of inflected monophony. The vocal-instrumental practice represents an accommodation of the other two and exhibits features found in both. Music as structure is seldom manifested in performance; the great value placed upon improvisation and individuality produces a singular realisation of structure for each performance.

Themes underlying the entire study include the exploitation of ambiguity, a relativistic approach to organisational activity, a wide range of cultural acceptability, the use of repetition without reduplication, and the implications of process orientation in the culture.

390. TRINIDAD, Felicisima Martin (Ed. D.). "An Investigation of Supervisory Practices of Department Heads of Science in the Manila Public Secondary Schools." Rutgers University, 1966. 221 pp. Source: DAI, XXVII, 2A (August, 1966), 422-A-423-A. XUM Order No. 66-6915.

Purposes

The major purposes of this study are:

1. To determine and compare the perceptions of principals, department heads, and teachers regarding the present supervisory practices of department heads of science in the Manila general public secondary schools.

2. To determine and compare the practices desired by these groups of staff members regarding the supervisory duties of department heads of science.

3. To compare the practices desired and the practices perceived by principals, department heads, and teachers.

Procedure

All of the twenty-two general, public high schools in Manila were chosen for the study. The population consisted of twenty-two principals, twenty department heads of science, and 366 teachers of science.

A questionnaire-checklist was developed from reviewed literature covering 60 supervisory activities and categorized as follows:

1. Cooperative Planning and Action
2. Personal Relationships
3. Self-Improvement
4. Experimentation and Research
5. Restrictive Practices

Respondents were requested to indicate the extent to which the sixty activities should be expected of department heads, and the extent to which these functions are actually performed by department heads in four categories of responses: Never or Seldom, Less than half the time, More than half the time, and Usually or Always.

The chi-square technique was used to test the differences between paired responses of department heads, principals, and teachers in their expectation of department head practices; the differences between the perceptions of the three groups of actual practices; and the differences in their responses between expectation and actual practices of department heads of the sixty supervisory activities.

Findings

Most of the supervisory activities in the five categories were viewed favorably by the respondent groups.

There was greater satisfaction with present department head practices indicated in the responses of department heads and principals than in the responses of teachers. No significant differences were found in the responses of department heads and principals to the items on Cooperative Planning and Action, Personal Relationships, and Restrictive Practices.

Significant differences were found between the expected and actual practices of department heads in the responses of each group.

Principals.--Significant differences between desired and actual practices were noted in their responses about department heads' evaluative practices, resource materials, and socialization outside school environment.

Department Heads.--Majority indicated they should spend more time helping teachers with their problems in the classrooms; planning and directing teacher's course of action; and evaluating teachers objectively. They further indicated they should not be involved in practices that do not relate directly to instructional supervision.

Teachers.--Significant differences between expected and actual practices of department heads were revealed in teacher replies on most items. General satisfaction was noted about keeping regular office hours, making equipment available to them, and encouraging teachers to observe other science classes. Significantly greater number of teachers expressed preference for "Usually" in practicing those items under Self-Improvement and Experimentation and Research.

The responses tend to show that teachers recognize and accept department head leadership in establishing good public relations, in introducing new techniques of teaching, and in demonstrating their abilities in many ways.

Recommendations for Future Study

Within the limits of this study, the following recommendations for future research are suggested:

1. A horizontal study of supervisory practices in other departments in the school system; in other school Divisions.

2. Studies to determine whether or not the differences between expected and actual practices of department heads are related to:

    a. Poor communication between teachers and department heads.

    b. Organizational pattern of the school system in which administrative functions are given precedence to supervisory duties of department heads.

    c. Department heads' educational and professional preparation.

391. TUMANGDAY, Maria G. (Ph. D.). "The Performance of Filipino Fifth-Grade Children on the Test of Work-Study Skills of the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills." University of Iowa, 1970. 213 pp. Source: DAI, XXXI, 9A (March, 1971), 4395-A. XUM Order No. 71-5840.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to explore the extent to which the fifth-grade pupils of certain public schools in Manila, Philippines, have mastered the skills required to read maps, graphs and tables, and the use of reference materials.

Method

The procedure adopted was to administer the Test of Work-Study Skills of the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills to the Filipino children and to compare the children's performance on the test with that of the Grade Three, Grade Four, and Grade Five pupils in the norms samples for the United States and for the State of Iowa. Comparisons were made, not only of the scores on the tests at each of the three grade levels, but also on item difficulty indices in order to determine which items were inappropriate because of cultural or curricular biases.

The data for the study consisted of the responses of 729 fifth-grade pupils of Philippine Normal College Laboratory School and Burgos Elementary School in Manila, 193 for the Test of Knowledge and the Use of Reference Materials, 243 for Reading Graphs and Tables, and 333 for the Test of Map Reading.

Findings

1. The achievement of Filipino fifth-graders compared favorably with the achievement of the United States third-graders in the three parts of the Test of Work-Study Skills. In comparison with the Grade Four and Grade Five Samples in the United States, the achievement in all three subtests was poorer. The relative difficulty of the three subtests was similar for the Philippine Sample and the American Samples regardless of grade level; however, the order of difficulty was not the same for the two nationalities. The Philippine Sample did best on the Test of Knowledge and the Use of Reference Materials. The Map Reading Test was the most difficult of the three subtests. For the American samples, the Test of Reading Graphs and Tables was the easiest and the Map Reading Test was the most difficult.

2. The items relatively easier for the Philippine Sample were those that involved skills in the use of the parts of a book such as the table of contents and the index, items that generally could be answered by applying everyday experience or items that tested elementary skills included in the Philippine curriculum.

The items that were relatively more difficult for the Philippine Sample were those that had to do with the use of general reference books and materials or those that called for more reflective thinking and ability to make generalizations.

3. Some of the differences in achievement between the Pailippine Sample and the American Sample may be attributed to cultural factors and curricular biases. Filipino fifth-graders met difficulty on items based on road maps and city maps. Items were also difficult for the Philippine Sample when the terms were not within their English vocabulary.

Conclusions and Implications

1. A test that can measure more adequately than the Iowa Test the achievement of the Filipino children can be constructed by replacing terms that cause bias by terms that are familiar and suitable for the Filipino pupils.

2. To insure mastery of the work-study skills by Filipino children, greater emphasis and a more systematic instruction of the skills will be required.

3. It is the responsibility of curriculum makers to reexamine or re-evaluate the objectives and content of the curriculum and to provide teachers with guides to improved instruction.

392. TUMBAGAHAN, Tiburcio Jamora (Ed. D.). "The First Forty Years: A History of Silliman University from 1901 to 1941." Stanford University, 1949. 107 pp. Source: Eells, p. 124; and Stanford University, ABSTRACTS OF DISSERTATIONS (1948-49), pp. 558-561.

The religious orders controlled education in the Philippines during the period of Spanish rule. They established institutions of secondary and higher education long before the government made any provisions for primary instruction. The Jesuits established the College of San Jose in 1601, and the Dominicans founded the University of Santo Tomás in 1611. But the educational institutions established by the friars were primarily for the children of Spaniards and of the well-to-do.

In 1863 the government tried to set up a system of primary instruction in the islands. The decree of December 20 of that year provided for the establishing of primary schools in all towns. But the religious orders which were placed in control of the public schools made a dead letter of the law. Consequently when the Americans came in 1898 education in the Philippines was in a highly incomplete and chaotic state.

The coming of the Americans saw a new day dawn for Philippine education. A public school system which provided educational opportunities for all regardless of social or economic status was organized.

Conditions in the Philippines were still in a highly unsettled state when the Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America opened Silliman Institute in Dumaguete, Negros Oriental, on August 28, 1901. The establishment of the institution was made possible by the gift of Horace Brinsmade Silliman who gave the Presbyterian Board ten thousand dollars with which to start the institution. Mr. Silliman's purpose was to set up an educational institution in the Philippines which will provide the youth training in industrial and agricultural arts. But the Presbyterian Board, largely through Dr. Frank Field Ellinwood, secretary of the Board from 1871 to 1905, planned a bigger educational task for the institution. It refused to be bound by any limitation or condition which would forbid it at any time to drop industrial work as a part of the program of the institution when it would seem to be no longer called for. Thus, aside from training in the industrial arts, the program of Silliman embraced teacher training and a classical course designed to prepare students for college.

Dr. David S. Hibbard was appointed by the Presbyterian Board the first president of the institution. He remained in that capacity until 1930. During the twenty-nine years that he guided the activities of the institution, Silliman Institute grew from an elementary school for boys to a coeducational institution recognized all over the country for its high standard of instruction.

Dr. Charles R. Hamilton served as acting president of the institution when Dr. Hibbard resigned in 1930. He served in that capacity until 1932, when the Presbyterian Board finally appointed Dr. Roy H. Brown president of Silliman.

Dr. Brown served as president of Silliman from 1932 to 1936 when ill health forced him to return to the United States and necessitated another search for a new president for Silliman on the part of the agencies controlling the institution. During Dr. Brown's brief administration Silliman Institute became Silliman University, the summer session was started, and the first Filipino dean was appointed.

Professor Louis C. Winternheimer served as acting president of Silliman until the appointment of Dr. Arthur L. Carson in 1939. Between 1939 and the outbreak of the war in 1941, the Colleges of Science and of Business Administration were organized, the Conservatory of Music was established, and the Colleges of Liberal Arts and of Education were placed under separate deans.

At the outbreak of the war in 1941, the following units composed Silliman University: the College of Liberal Arts, the College of Science, the College of Education with undergraduate and graduate divisions, the College of Business Administration, the College of Theology, the College of Law, and the Conservatory of Music. In addition, the University maintained elementary and secondary departments as training schools for its students in the College of Education. It had a campus of twenty hectares on which were sixty-four buildings consisting of classrooms, laboratories, library, dormitories, and faculty residences. It had a sixteen-hectare farm two miles from the main campus. It had a student body of 2,200 including those enrolled during the summer session, and a college faculty of sixty-two men and women, forty of whom were Filipinos, and twenty-two Americans.

No measuring device exists to determine the extent of the influence of Silliman on the intellectual, social, and moral life of its community; but its work can probably be assessed in terms of W. H. Cowley's six functions of higher education:

1. General education
2. Special education
3. Scholarship
4. Research
5. Extra-curricular activities for students
6. Public service

During the entire period under study, Silliman made no attempt to evaluate its program of general education. Silliman needs to re-examine its program of general education before it can map out with certainty its future program of general education. Some of the questions that need to be answered in this study are: What are the objectives of general education? Should the objectives of general education in the Philippines be the same as its objectives elsewhere? What kind of curriculum will best achieve the objectives of general education in the Philippines? To what extent does the present curriculum of general education at Silliman approximate this curriculum?

Silliman had always made provisions for some kind of special education. Starting with a program of industrial education and teacher training, it expanded its work in special education to include engineering, business, theology, law, music, and graduate work in education. But in expanding its program of special education Silliman neglected to make provisions for one of the basic needs of the Philippines--agricultural education. Its failure in this respect seems to indicate a lack of sensitiveness to the needs of its community. The University should look into this problem and take steps toward its solution.

Scholarship in Silliman is still in a formative stage. Its present state is in some way a reflection of the state of Filipino culture which is still in the process of assimilating the diverse elements of Asiatic, European, and American cultures which form its heritage. Further deterrents to the proper development of scholarship at Silliman are the state of mind of the members of its staff and what in the opinion of various authorities would be too heavy a teaching load.

Silliman's main contribution to research is in the field of entomology. Through the work of Dr. James W. Chapman, who organized its department of biology, several species of ants previously unknown to science have been classified and named. But aside from this, Silliman has no other research projects. It needs to expand its research program so as to provide for the personnel and equipment necessary to gather new knowledge.

Although Silliman has always made provisions for the extracurricular life of its students, it has no machinery to regulate students' extracurricular activities. Silliman should also re-examine its policy on ballroom dancing in order to avoid the charge of inconsistency. It should either prohibit students from going to dances or allow university organizations to sponsor dances.

During the period under study, Silliman rendered its community invaluable public service. Its facilities as well as the services of its personnel have been made available to the community. Even during the war Silliman faculty and students furnished the leadership in the underground movement on the island of Negros.

Silliman University has a past and a prestige which any educational institution in the Philippines may well envy. But institutions as well as individuals can easily yield to the temptation of basking in the glories of their vanished yesterdays instead of being constantly on the alert to the ever changing challenges of today and tomorrow. The Philippines is a young country and its people are eager for a place in the sun. To be one of the best institutions of higher education in the midst of such circumstances is both a privilege and a responsibility.

393. TY, Eufemia Formento (Ed. D.). "A Proposed Program of Guidance Services for the Rural Schools of the Philip-

pines." University of Colorado, 1957. 335 pp.

Source: DAI, XX, 12 (June, 1960), 4597-4598. XUM

Order No. Mic 58-1247.

The problem was to give a clear, concise, comprehensive picture of attitudes and opinions of authors of guidance books, selected counselor trainers, and guidance directors of selected rural schools of the United States regarding general principles of organization and guidance services which are essential to building good guidance programs in rural schools. The specific purpose of the study was to provide basic information from which recommendations and suggestions can be made to aid rural school guidance workers and administrators in the Philippines determine the guidance services which should be provided in rural schools and the principles of organization which should be followed in the development of the guidance programs.

Methods of approach consisted of:

1. Review of literature on guidance services as related and applied to rural schools.
2. A review of related studies.
3. Construction of the questionnaire.
4. Distribution of the questionnaire to selected guidance experts concerned in rural school guidance.
5. Requesting printed guidance materials from respondents.
6. Collection, analysis, organization and presentation of the information gathered.

To know the names and location of rural schools having good guidance programs, the writer sent letters to all State Supervisors of Guidance in the United States, including those of Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and Virgin Islands, asking them to recommend not more than ten rural schools in each state having good guidance programs. After deciding which schools to include in this study, the writer sent their respective guidance directors the questionnaire. Questionnaires were also sent to selected counselor trainers. During the 1957 American Personnel and Guidance Association Convention in Detroit the writer conferred with some of the guidance experts in rural school guidance who returned the completed check list. The writer also attended the convention sessions on rural guidance and secured ideas pertinent to this study.

The findings of the study indicated a growing realization that guidance services be made an integral part of the total educational program in rural schools. There was agreement among the respondents on general principles of organization and the services which are most important in beginning a guidance program. It was found that more than one-third of the schools included in the study provided guidance services for students from grades 9 through 12. One-fourth of them had guidance services provided for students from grades 7 through 12; and one-fourth of them maintained elementary school guidance programs which are either mainly for elementary schools, or as a part of the guidance program for the whole school system.

The general principles of organization agreed on were:

1. Counselors and teachers should regard the guidance services as a cooperative undertaking in which both have well defined responsibilities.

2. Group guidance activities and counseling have a reciprocal relationship and should supplement each other.

3. Guidance services function throughout all grade levels from kindergarten through high school.

4. Classroom teaching is regarded inseparable from guidance; the teacher guides as well as teaches.

5. In beginning a guidance program it is best to select a few services meeting the greatest needs of the greatest number of pupils.

6. School guidance services function not only for all pupils in school but also for those who have left school.

7. The school guidance program should extend beyond the school into the community.

8. The students should be represented in policy formation at all stages of program development.

9. In beginning the use of a cumulative record it is deemed best to have a simple form containing only those items most frequently used rather than a comprehensive one which finds little or no use.

10. Counselors should be freed from classroom duties so that they may devote their time to assisting boys and girls on an individual basis and conferring with teachers and parents.

11. The guidance counselors should act as consultants in curriculum revision, student activities, etc., but should not be administratively responsible for these activities.

12. An important strategy in beginning a guidance program is to place special emphasis on activities and services which will show discernible results, such as placement.

The guidance services agreed on as most important and therefore to be included and emphasized as among the first services when initiating a guidance program are:

1. Individual appraisal
2. Counseling
3. Follow-up, research, and evaluation.

Analysis of the data also revealed that there was preference in the employment of part time counselors over full time counselors. The strongest reason for the preference was the fact that classroom contacts are of great value to successful counseling. Most of the rural guidance workers were holders of the master's degree in guidance and counseling; and most of them had teaching and other work experiences in addition to experience in guidance work. The principal source of support for guidance service was found to be the local district. It was interesting to note that fathers' clubs, citizens' committees and

PTA were providing substantial financial support for the guidance services in some schools of their respective communities. The average number of years the organized programs of guidance services had existed was 6.6 years. This fact indicates that the guidance programs were relatively new at the time this study was conducted. A little less than one-half of the schools had as guidance consultants, representatives of state supervisors of guidance, college professors of nearby colleges and universities, mental hygienists and guidance workers of hospitals and clinics, State Employment Service agents, personnel of private agencies, and individuals in private practice.

The principal recommendations growing out of this study are the following. It is recommended that cooperative guidance programs similar to those of the states of New York, California, and Pennsylvania be adapted in Philippine rural schools to overcome financial handicaps and guidance personnel shortages. Teacher training institutions need to revise their programs to include more similar subject matter elements in guidance and counseling. Institutions should give more emphasis to practicum courses in counselor training. They should be given opportunity to practice under supervision the principles and practices they have learned in theory in a variety of situations. The practice of employing part-time counselors (teacher counselors) in preference to full-time counselors is recommended. Schools attempting to develop good guidance programs must have an administrator and a guidance director who, in addition to possessing qualities of administrative, professional, and educational leadership, have the guidance point of view. The school must also have teachers who understand and are sympathetic to the guidance program and who are willing to contribute constructively to it. Financial assistance should be provided for these staff members who wish to improve themselves professionally in the field of guidance. There is need for greater teamwork among guidance workers, teachers, administrators, community workers, parents, and pupils--all of them working on a united front to help a child attain his maximum development. It is recommended that there should be continuous in-service training in order to provide opportunity for staff members to develop more adequate skills in guiding their pupils. Teaching and other experiences should be considered in the selection of counselors. The certification of counselors is recommended as a state or national policy. Pupils should be encouraged to share the guidance functions.

U

394. ULGADO, Antonio Victor (Ph. D.). "Towards Family Life Education for Population Change: A Conceptual Model for Educational Innovation in the Philippines." Florida State University, 1973. 387 pp. Source: DAI, XXXIII, 11A (May, 1973), 6473-A-6474-A. XUM Order No. 73-11,326.

This is a conceptual analysis of the knowledge utilization and dissemination process as planned change in the educational system. The study is initially focused on two contexts: the psychological and the group. The four perspectives which are most commonly used by the practitioners in the field of knowledge utilization and dissemination are subsumed under one conceptual frame of reference: the linkage or the intersystem model. The psychological and group factors affecting the process of knowledge utilization and dissemination are then "translated" into the context of Filipino society. Finally, the implications for educational innovation in the Philippines are delineated, and a concrete program of action in one specific area, family life education for population change, is briefly described.

The psychological factors relevant to the process fall under two main categories: those psychological characteristics that are profound and enduring, and thus not easily changed; and those that are less permanent and are susceptible to change, in keeping with the individual's changing conditions or circumstances. There is no one particular psychological characteristic that can automatically determine beforehand a person's acceptance or rejection of new knowledge. Moreover, knowledge utilization and dissemination, as planned change, must reckon with the complexities of group processes. Conceptual models used by practitioners in this field fall under one of four perspectives: the research, development, and diffusion, the problem solver, the social interaction, and the structural-processual perspectives. The weaknesses of each of these could be minimized, and the advantages and strengths of each maximized, if they are all integrated into one conceptual framework: the linkage or intersystem model. This model is ideally applicable when dealing with issues of leadership, influence, power, communication, and conflict, whether in groups, organizations, or entire societies.

The "translation" of the model into the Filipino cultural context brings out the pervasively profound influence of the basic cultural value of social acceptance on the modal Filipino personality. The planner of change in the Philippines must have recourse to the growing consensus of social scientists that people do something first, then bring their attitudes in line with their behavior. Moreover, he must take into account the psychological "costs" that must be paid by the Filipino who decides to change. Finally, the Filipino's behavior will not be changed unless this occurs together with significant changes in his social context. Efforts to change him will be minimally effective as long as there are few opportunities and rewards for the expression of new behavior patterns.

The implications for educational innovation in the Philippines, subsumed under the linkage or intersystem model, underscore the crucial importance of the teacher as the agent of planned change, and the vital role to be played by the rest of the socialization community, especially the parents. In terms of applying these to one particular area in Philippine education, Family Life Education for Population Change offers a rather promising field for action. The monograph concludes with a broad outline of a national program that includes curriculum development, teacher-training, parent-community involvement, and basic research, as its principal activities.

Pelagia Untalan

395. UNTALAN, Pelagia (Ed. D.). "A Study of Student Teaching Programs in Elementary Education in the Light of Selected Principles with Special Emphasis Being Given to the Student Teaching Program in the Philippine Normal College." Indiana University, 1954. 417 pp. Source: DAI, XV, 5 (1955), 769-770. XUM Order No. 11,211.

Problem

The purpose of this investigation was to study various student teaching programs in elementary education in the light of selected principles that should guide a program of student teaching. The student teaching programs studied were as follows: State Teachers College, Oneonta, New York; Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana; Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana; School of Education, Indiana University; Philippine Normal College, Manila, Philippines.

Procedure

The investigator reviewed literature concerned with student teaching programs in elementary education in an effort to ascertain principles that should govern a student teaching program. As a result of this study twenty-two principles were formulated. An attempt was then made to discover ways in which these principles were implemented in five teacher education institutions. A guide sheet was prepared in order to facilitate interviews in connection with each of the principles. Interviews were conducted with selected personnel in each of the institutions included in the study.

Conclusions

1. Teacher education institution and public school personnel are recognizing increasingly their joint responsibilities in the preparation of elementary teach-

ers. These responsibilities range from the recruitment of teachers to the in-service education of teachers.

2. It is highly important for the objectives of student teaching to be stated specifically and in terms of behavioral outcomes.

3. Limited use is being made of guided professional laboratory experiences prior to student teaching.

4. A full-time student teaching program provides excellent opportunities for a student teacher to participate with increasingly greater amounts of responsibility in the instructional as well as non-instructional functions of a teacher.

5. The optimum professional growth of a student teacher should provide the basis for determining when and the extent to which a student teacher should engage in observation, participation or actual teaching experiences.

6. Method teachers should actively participate as resource people in a program of student teaching so that they may be of maximum assistance to student teachers and supervising teachers.

7. Student teaching programs do not seem to make maximum provisions for differences in the abilities and needs of individual student teachers.

8. A full-time student teaching program seems to have many advantages over a part-time program.

9. Student teachers in elementary education normally have limited opportunities to gain intensive student teaching experiences with pupils of different grade levels as well as socio-economic levels.

10. Supervising teachers seem to feel that their pupils profited as a result of having student teachers assigned to them.

11. Limited use is being made of seminars and small group conferences held during the period of student teaching.

12. There seems to be wide acceptance among teacher educators of the value to be derived by student teachers from self-evaluation.

13. The most commonly used methods for promoting continuous self-evaluation in student teaching seem to include daily diaries written by the student teacher, rating scales upon which the student teachers appraise themselves, and various types of conferences between student teachers, supervising teachers and college personnel.

14. Off-campus student teaching presents major problems in the supervision of student teaching especially when the college supervisor has to travel great distances.

15. Some undesirable variations in the selection of cooperating schools and supervising teachers seem to result from the absence of appropriate printed policies.

16. Teacher education institutions and the cooperating public schools seem to work together as harmoniously as possible in providing desirable experiences for student teachers.

17. Wide variation exists in the compensation and/or recognition given supervising teachers and other public school personnel who assist with student teaching.

V

396. VALDEZ, Juan C. (Ed. D.). "A Proposed Teacher Training Program for Mountain View College." University of Maryland, 1961. 256 pp. Source: DAI, XXII, 9

Juan C. Valdez

(March, 1962), 3108-3109. XUM Order No. 62-223.

The purpose of this dissertation was to study the need for qualified teachers in the Philippines, particularly in the service area of Mountain View College; to investigate the prevailing teacher education programs in some representative colleges in that country, in twenty-five selected state teachers colleges, and in ten Seventh-day Adventist teacher training institutions in the United States; to study the policies and requirements of the Bureau of Private Schools in the Philippines and the Seventh-day Adventist denomination; and to study the feasibility of expanding the educational program of Mountain View College with the ultimate objective of proposing a teacher training program for that school.

Personal letters, interviews, questionnaires, and library methods were employed in acquiring the necessary materials. Valuable documents, committee reports, doctoral dissertations, professional magazines and other individual and group researches were consulted.

The program proposed emphasizes the four-fold education; namely, spiritual, intellectual, social and physical. Seventeen principles of teaching served as a guide in the construction of the curriculum.

In view of the fact that Mountain View College is a denominational school, the program was constructed in accordance with the educational standard of the church. On the other hand, it has endeavored to meet the educational requirements of the Philippine government through the Bureau of Private Schools.

A broad general education cutting across several areas of learning was included in the program. As a part of his training, every student is required to do some practical or manual labor for at least twelve hours per week. The student is paid according to the minimum wage law of the country.

The elementary and secondary teacher training curricula constructed have a minimum requirement of 168 semester units for the bachelor of science in education degree. The programs include 64 and 63 units of general education on the elementary and secondary levels, respectively.

These comprise at least three-eighths of the total unit requirements for each level as suggested in previous studies. In these two curricula the general education courses are prominent in the first two years of college; the professional courses in the junior and senior years.

In the elementary education program there are 58 semester units of professional courses, while in the secondary education, there are 44 units. There is no required major area of teaching on the elementary level. On the secondary level the required major units range from 29 to 45, and in the minor areas the units range from 15 to 24.

These programs are far from perfect, but as they are tried in an actual situation, they may be improved through the united efforts and cooperation of the different contributing departments and school personnel of Mountain View College. It is hoped that other educational and social agencies will offer assistance so that these programs will be able to cope with the needs of the society the college serves and with the needs of the individual learner.

It is recommended that further study be conducted to find effective means of administering and supervising the program and that research be made to construct objective devices and instruments for the purpose of evaluating the effectiveness of the program presented in this work.

397. VALENA, Guillermo de Leon (Ph. D.). "Modern Cultural Orientation and the Adoption of 'Miracle Rice' by the Filipino Farmer." University of Missouri--Columbia, 1973. 235 pp. Source: DAI, XXXV, 2A (August, 1974), 1246-A-1247-A. XUM Order No. 74-18,662.

The aim of this dissertation is to provide a socio-cultural framework within which to examine the adoption of agricultural innovations. It is advanced here that modernization, defined as the change in the psyche of an individual brought about by varied contacts with peoples and ideas, affects the totality of a person's behavior, including that of his farming activities. Several factors were postulated as indicators of modernization and the relationship of each to adoption is examined. Results of structured field interview with 1384 lowland rice farmers in the Philippines during 1968 revealed that the following factors were related to the adoption of miracle rice (IR-8): education; exposure to mass media; membership in formal organizations; level of living; morale; aspiration level; frequency of trips to town; change agent contacts; and use of non-traditional credit sources. General knowledge of various innovative practices was not significantly related to the use of miracle rice. On the whole, the data supported the main thesis that the more modern a farmer is, the more he will adopt IR-8.

The relationship between modernization and adoption, however, was not consistently demonstrated when the sample was segregated into provinces. Some provinces had respondents who were modern yet did not adopt miracle rice. This suggests that situational or structural factors are not uniform throughout the country and that they may be limiting the adoption of miracle rice.

398. VALERA, Jaime Ramon Bermas (Ph. D.). "The Influence of Location Development Level on Socioeconomic Achievement in the Philippines." University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1979. 332 pp. Source: DAI, XL, 9A (March, 1980), 5193-A-5194-A. XUM Order No. 8001637.

This study describes status attainment of male household head in the Philippines. The aim of this study is to examine the influence of location on educational, occupational and earnings attainment of Filipinos in 1968. Several hypotheses proposed by Treiman (1970) regarding the relationship of societal development and the process of stratification were tested. In general, these hypotheses predicted that the direct effect of parental status on son's achievement will be less in developed regions compared to less developed areas. This follows from the general theme followed in this research: that the environment, the technological and economic context of locations, influences the system of stratification in a society.

Locations were defined according to economic development regions. Regions were identified through a factor analysis of nine economic indicators using provinces as units of analysis. Two factors were extracted and interpreted as the consumption and the production dimensions of economic development. Location is also treated in terms of rural-urban and farm/non-farm communities of residence.

A basic status attainment model was formulated which included the following as predetermined variables: father's education, father's occupation and rural-urban origin. This status attainment model used the respondent's education, occupation and annual income as the achievement dependent variables. The sample was from data tapes of the National Demographic Survey of 1968 (n=8,527). Regression analysis of the three main dependent variables was used to estimate the path coefficients. The basic status attainment model showed that educational attainment is the most important determinant of earnings and occupational status.

To determine the influence of location on achievement, the basic model was extended by adding four location variables to the regression equations. The addition of location variables increased the explained variance of the main dependent variables by at most 20 percent. The unique contribution of the location variables, taken altogether, was from seven to fifteen percent. The basic status attainment variables contributed from 32 to 51 percent of the total variation. This left a substantial amount of the explained variation due to the joint effects of location and the basic attainment variables.

Separate analysis of the basic model for development regions confirmed most of Treiman's hypotheses. Specifically, the regionalization along the consumption dimension confirmed all of Treiman's hypotheses. In this regionalization, the city of Manila and the province of Rizal were the locations composing the national center or core, while the rest of the country composed the national periphery. However, the results of the path analyses for each of the three production dimension regions did not support Treiman's propositions. In particular, the hypothesis that the direct effect of education on income will be less in the more developed regions than in the less developed regions is not confirmed. In general, the expectation that parental status will have less influence on achievement in more developed regions than in less developed regions is supported by our results.

This study also showed that the greatest inequality among the three attainment variables is in incomes. The least unequal distribution is in occupational attainment. With respect to development regions, however, we found that the greatest inequality in incomes was in the relatively underdeveloped areas. The greatest variance in occupations was in the relatively developed regions. The general pattern of status attainment, nonetheless, remained the same, i.e., educational attainment is the most important determinant of occupation and income irrespective of respondent's location.

399. VALLE, Nolina N. (Ph. D.). "Readability Formulas: Their Application to Philippine Grades III-VI Science Textbooks." Purdue University, 1972. 200 pp. Source: DAI, XXXIII, 9A (March, 1973), 4815-A-4816-A. XUM Order No. 73-6121.

The Filipino child, like any other child, takes part in school activities to the extent to which he possesses a foundation of perceptual-motor skills necessary for him to participate. These skills are even more essential in a reading situation in which English, the student's second or third language, is the medium of instruction. Consequently, his desire to learn and read may be lessened or even extinguished when the reading materials are too difficult. Likewise, over-emphasis or over-limitation of reading vocabulary in the science book may possibly make it dull and uninteresting. If one has to consider further the range of reading and social problems brought into the classroom by the Filipino child, the problem of text preperation and selection becomes increasingly significant.

Since existing measures of readability typically use measures of vocabulary load, they are often tedious and time-consuming for the teacher. The need for more accurate and simpler means of determining the readability of science textbooks in the third to sixth grades is so apparent that this study becomes an imperative.

The content analysis-correlational study procedure of the descriptive method of research was used in this study to ascertain the readability and grade placement of twenty-six science textbooks now used by third to sixth grade pupils in Philippine elementary schools. Two of the most recently used formulas, the Fry Readability Graph method and the SMOG Grading Formula, were used and compared with the Revised Lorge Formula and the Johnson Method of determining readability. The rationale for the use of the four formulas/methods in this study is based on simplicity, accuracy, and ease of application.

The following hypotheses were tested by using the data gathered from the analyses of the twenty-six science textbooks.

Hypothesis I: There are significant correlations among the readability formulas/methods used in this study.

Hypothesis II: There are significant differences in the means of readability scores/indices among the formulas/methods used.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for raw scores or machine formula for computing the Pearson r was used to find the correlations between readability scores used. The correlation was tested at the .01 percent level of significance. Likewise, the two-way analysis of variance and the Newman-Keuls Sequential Range Test were performed to find the differences between formulas. It was found that the formulas were highly correlated to a substantial extent to warrant their interchangeable use.

400. VALSAN, Easwaramangalath Harlharan (Ph. D.). "A Comparative Study of Four Cases of Community Development Programs and Rural Local Government in India and the

Easwaramangalath Hariharan Valsan

Philippines." Indiana University, 1967. 556 pp.

Source: DAI, XXVIII, 9A (March, 1968), 3751-A. XUM

Order No. 68-2371.

Community development programs were started in India and the Philippines in the early 1950s at the initiative of voluntary organizations and were soon undertaken by the respective national governments also. In both countries, by the end of the decade, it became clear to the leaders that rural development was possible only through decentralization of authority to democratically elected local councils. Legislative reforms towards this end brought forth new institutions in most of the Indian states and in the Philippines.

This study is an attempt to gauge the capacity of the rural local bodies in the two countries to undertake "self-help" projects for community development. Four different types of cases in the two countries are selected for intensive study at the intermediary level and below: i.e., at the Block and panchayat levels in India and at the Municipal and Barrio levels in the Philippines.

Comparison is attempted between:

1. India and the Philippines.

2. Two states in India: Maharashtra and Kerala, with two types of rural local government systems.

3. Governmental (PACD); and non-governmental (PRRM), programs in community development in two provinces of the Philippines (Albay and Nueva Ecija respectively).

The data were collected through intensive field visits, interviews and questionnaires. Methodology had to be adapted according to the access to particular types of data in each case. At the same time, certain general criteria like their educational qualifications, economic status, political consciousness, leadership qualities, and experience in local self-government, as assessed from the members of the panchayats and the barrio councils are compared and contrasted.

One of the major findings of the study is the need for inspiring leadership in community development programs at all levels of a nation. An attempt is made to distinguish between charisma and inspiration and to suggest that development needs inspiring leadership and not charismatic leaders whose numbing influence may retard development. The need for a "chain of inspiration" in all hierarchical and horizontal relationships within the organization for community development is also emphasized.

Among the cases studied, the PRRM, a voluntary organization of the Philippines, was found to have undertaken the most intensive, effective, and inspiring program of community development. At the same time, they seem to have achieved much through a centralized program undertaken by a trained bureaucracy who are subjected to systematic managerial supervision, inspection, and institutionalized inspiration. Local "self-government" in that sense remains a dream though the PRRM is trying to train local leadership also. The PACD, on the other hand, operates through the barrio councils.

In India, though more authority is delegated to panchayats in Maharashtra, those in Kerala without similar authority obtained through legislation for "democratic decentralization" show greater competence for "self-government."

A series of hypothetical statements on the observations in the field are given in the concluding chapter. A dynamic model for development administration is suggested adding to the POSDCORB concept, the Five 'I's: Information, Inspiration, Innovation, Introjection, and Integration.

401. VAN HISE, Joseph Benjamin (Ph. D.). "American Contributions to Philippine Science and Technology, 1898-1915." University of Wisconsin, 1957. 629 pp. Source: DAI, XVII, 6 (1957), 1323-1324. XUM Order No. 21,233.

Can American scientific knowledge and technical skills be used by Americans to promote the health and welfare of materially disadvantaged peoples overseas?

The first Americans in the Philippines, the United States Volenteers, used American skills to defeat the Spaniards and suppress the Philippine Insurrection. They reparied a railroad, for example, spun telecommunication wires, sanitized Manila, and opened Quartermaster workshops.

Exercising plenary powers, the United States Philippine Commission brought over American technical experts to improve public health, aid agriculture, conserve and exploit Insular sylvan, mineral and piscian resources, and construct public works.

Applying germicides and quarantine, American sanitary inspectors fought cholera and terrorized an uncomprehending and uncooperative native population. Lepers were segregated. Filipinos were vaccinated. The American Director of Health, who had persistently used reliable American health officers rather than "inept" Filipinos, was replaced as soon as Filipinos obtained home rule, his draconian procedures having alienated the public, the politicos and the local medical profession.

Experts from Washington advocated the mechanization of the rice paddies, the sowing of American seed (particularly corn), and the irrigation of Luzon's lowlands. In each case a technique, successfully proven in America, failed in the Philippines. Veterinarians were unable to halt an epizootic of rinderpest through prophylactic inoculation or by constabulary quarantine.

American foresters tried to conserve Insular hardwoods against the ravages of American lumber companies and native caingin makers, without notable success.

American engineers jerrybuilt narrowgauge railroads into unprofitable hinterlands. Their admirable network of all-weather roads, crossing permanent bridges of reinforced concrete, gave way ultimately under the pounding of motor trucks. They built major harbor works at Manila, Iloilo, and Cebu, but did not improve the lesser outports, nor successfully modernize the inter-island merchant marine. Manila acquired a modern sewer system and water supply, a city plan, and imperial edifices of Classic mode.

Joseph Benjamin Van Hise

A cadre of scientists-in-residence at the Philippine Bureau of Science served the other bureaus and offered scientific solutions to Insular economic problems. They could not compel industrial advances when American investors and Philippine capitalists were wary or disinterested.

American colonial administrators failed to apply American science and technology with greater success because:

1. Technical answers, worked out in America, did not necessarily resolve roughly similar Philippine problems; while American experts in the Islands, baffled by the novel, only sometimes improvised successfully.

2. A hydraheaded Commission form of government made coordinated planning and efficient administration of technical services difficult.

3. The United States Government was unwilling to invest money in Philippine development, and all technical projects had therefore to be paid for from limited Insular revenues; while Congressional restrictive land policies discouraged private American investment in mining and plantation agriculture.

4. The grant of increasing measures of autonomy to Filipinos gave their national spokesmen a veto over unpopular projects, and assured a filipinized civil service largely purged of expensive American experts.

5. American administrators, who assumed that only American specialists knew the answers, preferred not to use Filipino scientific or technical personnel; while at the salaries the Philippine Government would offer, competent American specialists often could not be hired for, nor retained in, the Insular Service.

6. The Proconsular rulers assumed that the American regime would last for a generation or more, and they made no systematic provision, therefore, for the orderly and timely transfer of Philippine technical services to well-trained and experienced Filipinos.

Although the particular projects they sponsored frequently miscarried, Americans taught Filipinos to expect technical advice and help from their government. Because of American colonial rule, Filipinos became the more quickly aware of the potential usefulness of Western science and technology, and the more prone to try Western ways.

402. VARELA, Lourdes Ybiernas (Ph. D.). "A Contrastive Study of English and Six Major Philippine Languages: The Segmental Phonemes." University of Michigan, 1966. 138 pp. Source: DAI, XXVII, 10A (April, 1967), 3239-A-3240-A. XUM Order No. 67-1819.

The purpose of this study was:

a. To compare the segmental phonemes of six major Philippine languages (Cebuano, Hiligaynon, Iloko, Pampango, Pangasinan, and Tagalog) in order to ascertain similarities and differences among them.

b. To compare the segmental phonemes of these Philippine languages with those of English.

c. To predict points of interference and facilitation for the speakers of these Philippine languages in learning English pronunciation, and to assign these predictions to levels of ease and difficulty.

The present study has been concerned with the problem of teaching English pronunciation to linguistically diversified groups of Filipino students. It proposed to seek an answer to a two-fold question:

1. For native speakers of different Philippine languages learning English pronunciation, what learning problems are common to all the language groups?

2. What learning problems are peculiar to only one or some of the language groups?

The solution worked for was aimed towards providing a basis for the preparation of effective teaching materials. Working toward this end, the six Philippine languages were compared in order to ascertain similarities and differences among them. This was accomplished by constructing a diasystem of the Philippine languages. In this way, the six languages could be simultaneously compared. The six Philippine languages were next compared with English in a detailed contrastive analysis that pointed up areas of interference which constitute the learning problems for the speakers of the six Philippine languages. To rank these learning problems on a basis of difficulty, a comparison of the correspondences among the optional, obligatory and zero choices for the speakers of English and the six Philippine languages was made. Thus, it was possible to determine the levels of difficulty to which the learning problems could be assigned. These learning problems were classified in a way that would indicate which problems were common to most language groups and which problems were peculiar to only one or some of the language groups.

To summarize, this study has provided the information necessary to predict the shared as well as the non-shared problems for a linguistically diversified group of Filipino students learning the pronunciation of English, and to assign these problems to levels of ease and difficulty.

403. VELASQUEZ, Maximiniano Aspiras (Ed. D.). "Development of Principles for In-Service Improvement of Teachers in the Philippines, with Special Reference to Sulu Province." University of Illinois, 1953. 315 pp. Source: DAI, XIV, 2 (1954), 313-315. XUM Order No. 6992.

Purposes

1. To develop and set forth guiding principles for the in-service education of public school teachers in the Philippines, with special reference to Sulu Province.

2. To suggest ways of implementing the principles at the various levels of the Philippine educational system.

Method

The author reviewed the current literature on the in-service education of teachers and collected several statements of principles as expounded by different educational leaders. Out of this array of principles, he formulated a set of preliminary statements which he presented, for validation, to a jury of American experts and Philippine educators.

Findings and Interpretations

The returns from the American experts and the Philippine respondents showed that, except in a few statements, there was general agreement between both respondents. The sixty-five statements, as finally restated, are listed below in abbreviated form.

I. COOPERATIVE AND DEMOCRATIC PLANNING

A. Formulating and Determining Policies.

1. Policies for the in-service program should be cooperatively and democratically formulated by all who are concerned with and affected by such policies.

2. The participants in policy-making and planning should assume the responsibility of supporting the policies and doing all they can to implement them.

3. Policies and plans should be broad, leaving the details to the teachers.

B. Determining Objectives, Purposes, and Goals.

4. The basic foundation for an effective in-service program is common agreement on objectives, purposes and goals.

5. Objectives should serve as guides to determine the

progress, or the lack of progress, of the program.

6. The in-service program is a process of enrichment and deepening of understanding which begins in the pre-service period.

7. The program should be directed toward the improvement of teachers as persons, as citizens, and as worthy members of the teaching profession.

8. The program should provide experiences in working with others and participating in democratic group processes.

9. The ultimate purpose of maintaining in-service programs is to improve the overall learning situation for boys and girls as well as for adults.

C. Identifying Problems and Needs.

10. The program should emerge from a felt need determined cooperatively.

11. The program should include both individual and group problems.

12. The pattern of any particular program should vary in accordance with the particular needs of the situation.

13. Two-way channels of communication to insure the free flow of ideas and suggestions should be opened and maintained.

II. ADMINISTERING THE PROGRAM

A. Organizing the Program.

14. The process of organizing and administering the program should be a joint responsibility of all who are concerned.

15. The program should be flexible to allow individual and group differences; it should include a variety of activities.

16. Underlying the administration of the program should be a genuine belief on the part of administrators and supervisors in the improvability of people.

17. The program should, depending upon the local leadership and resources available, primarily be the responsibility of the local school community.

18. If the program is to succeed, it should have an effective machinery of action and strong administrative support.

19. The program should start its activities with those problems on which the participants can do something and proceed progressively to more difficult tasks.

B. Stimulating In-Service Growth Through Personnel Policies.

20. Harmonious relationships among staff members constitute major incentives for engendering interest in professional growth.

21. Genuine motives for professional growth come from within the individual; therefore, participation in the program should generally be voluntary.

22. The program should have provision for some kind of tangible reward for outstanding in-service efforts.

23. The administrators and supervisors should capitalize on the skill and enthusiasm of those teachers who show potential leadership.

24. The program should have provision for encouraging teachers to publish educational articles.

25. The program should include provision for study toward completion of teacher education curriculum or an advanced degree.

26. The administration should help create a physical, social, and psychological "climate" conducive to in-service growth.

27. The administration should, in so far as it is feasible and consistent with local conditions, release teachers from the traditional and undemocratic administration and supervision.

28. Teachers should, within the regulations established by legal action, be given a voice in determining contractual relationships and tenure.

29. Teachers are stimulated to grow in service when they have some assurance of security in old age.

30. Teachers' professional organizations help foster in-service growth through stimulation of common professional interests and common goals.

31. Teachers and administrators should develop, adopt, and enforce their code of ethics.

C. Providing Time, Facilities, and Funds.

32. The in-service program should be recognized as an integral part of the whole educational program.

33. The school system should provide appropriate materials and facilities for use of the participants in the in-service program.

34. Appropriate media for acquainting and familiarizing teachers with current educational innovations should be provided by the school system, the teacher-training institutions, and other agencies concerned.

35. The program should be supported primarily by the school and the community.

36. The participants in the program should assume the responsibility for collecting, preparing, and distributing teaching aids and materials.

D. Identifying and Utilizing Local Resources.

37. Every effort should be made to identify and utilize community resources.

38. The services of resource persons should be utilized whenever appropriate and available.

39. Teachers should familiarize themselves with and utilize resources available in the school plant and its immediate vicinity.

40. Resources at the various levels should be selected in terms of what teachers intend to accomplish at any given time and situation.

III. AREAS OF PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

A. Understanding Children.

41. The program should enhance teachers' ability in guiding children and adults in all aspects of their development--mental, physical, social, and cultural.

42. The program should improve teachers' ability to identify what a child knows, how he feels, and how he learns.

B. Understanding of and Working with the Community.

43. The program should include participating in and working with the community in worthwhile activities.

44. The program should include provision for informing the public of the nature and value of the in-service activities, and for seeking public cooperation, support, and understanding.

C. Utilizing New Developments in Education.

45. The program should make the participants alert and sensitive to the latest developments in education.

46. The program should include, when appropriate, provision for research, studies, and experimentation.

D. Applying Principles and Laws of Learning.

47. The program should be administered in a manner consistent with the best knowledge of how teachers (adults) learn, considering their different backgrounds and achievement levels; giving such allowance for individual differences as teachers are expected to give boys and girls.

48. Teachers grow as a result of what they are able to do, by, and for themselves and not what is done on them, or for them.

49. Teacher growth is facilitated when learning experiences are accompanied by satisfaction and when knowledge of progress is known.

50. The program should be concerned, in the main, with known principles and laws of learnings.

E. Training for Leadership.

51. Leadership in the in-service program should be a function, not a person.

52. The program should extend the teachers' self-reliance and develop their willingness to assume and execute responsibility.

F. Improving the Curriculum.

53. The in-service program should result in the improvement of the curriculum.

IV. EVALUATING THE IN-SERVICE PROGRAM

54. The program should have provision for its continuous evaluation by all concerned.

55. The program should result, on the part of the public, in a higher regard for teachers and a better understanding of the teaching profession.

56. The evaluation of the program should take into account the well-rounded development of teachers and pupils, and the promotion of better parent-teacher and teacher-pupil relationships.

57. A program of action should follow evaluation.

58. Evaluation and objectives in in-service education, as in other education, should be interrelated.

59. The evaluation should not reduce the participants' feeling of security and self-confidence but should increase it.

60. Good evaluation should be concerned primarily with "what values" resulted from the overall effect of the in-service activities.

V. NEW PRINCIPLES ADDED ON BASIS OF JURY RESPONSES

61. There should be close cooperation between the institutions which prepare teachers and the schools which employ them.

62. The program should develop group and individual morale among the teachers.

63. The program should have provision for the protection and improvement of the physical and mental health of the teachers.

64. The program should maintain a balance between specific help and discussion of general principles, and it should bridge the gap between theory and practice.

65. Supervision, when used as a means of in-service education, should be democratic and constructive.

Recommendations and Proposals

The author made general proposals and recommendations for translating the above principles into action at the various levels of the Philippine educational system. Since teachers in various schools have different in-service growth needs, he avoided describing a blueprint of an "ideal" and logically complete program. He mentioned some of the obstacles to be overcome before full implementation of the principles can be done. Conversely, he enumerated some of the assets found in the schools, in the teachers, and in the community which are favorable to the implementation of the principles he developed in this study.

404. VENTURA, Eva M. Duka (Ph. D.). "Burma and the Philippines: A Comparative Study of the Development of Local Self-Government Within the Context of Their Political Systems." Southern Illinois University, 1968. 698 pp. Source: DAI, XXIX, 10A (April, 1969), 3659-A. XUM Order No. 69-6314.

Upon independence, Burma and the Philippines were committed to the establishment of a modern democratic nation-state. This commitment was reflected in one of their theses: democracy ought to start at the basic levels if it is to prosper at all. One way of realizing this was through legislation and programs designed to obtain the widest possible popular participation in local government.

In Burma, the most important laws passed were the Democratic Local Government Acts of 1949 and 1953. Among the many local autonomy laws passed in the Philippines, the most significant were the Barrio Charter Acts of 1959 and 1963 and the Decentralization Act of 1967. Government agencies were created to coordinate and implement the democratization policies and activities.

However, the attempts to democratize local government and administration in Burma failed. Since 1962, the military regime established a tightly controlled centralized system of government. In contrast, the Philippines continues to function through free competitive democratic processes. A vigorous and relatively effective local autonomy movement remains. An examination of the historical and cultural factors in the two societies can provide the clues to the relative success or failure of the democratic experiments in Burma and the Philippines.

The Western colonial government in Burma and the Philippines was highly centralized. In effect, the indigenous political institutions and leadership were destroyed, particularly at the local level where there was some degree of autonomy and democracy. The educational system established in the two countries and carried over after independence had little pertinence to the social, political and economic needs of a modern state. A Western-oriented elite emerged and developed a strong hold on governmental policies and operations. Little attention was paid to the development of democratic local institutions for the leaders were preoccupied with the politics of national independence.

Comparatively, the Philippines had an earlier and longer Western colonial period. The intensive Christianization of the people helped hasten the pacification and unification of the Philippines by Spain. An earlier influx of Western liberal ideas into the society engendered the growth of a democratic ethic. Although limited in scope, it fostered Philippine nationalism. The American colonial policy in the Philippines produced an extensive political involvement of the people, resulting from widespread education and opportunities for public service. The country's relative stability and general social and economic growth helped develop a resilient society that is receptive to innovation under a civil government. These have enhanced the success of the democratic experiment in the Philippines.

In contrast, Burma's period of British dependency was fairly short and more recent. British policy of "divide and conquer" prevented the development of a national ethos among the peoples of Burma. Opportunities in education and government were extremely limited. An exclusive administrative elite carried out the functions of a highly centralized government. These fostered constant conspiratorial agitation and opposition to authority. Moreover, Burmese culture and traditional society suffered from politically debilitating factors such as non-involvement in government, minority problems, and social and religious concepts and practices which limited the growth of a democratic system. The prominent role of the army and the endless civil disorder in the past which still presently persists, have influenced the development of the military's role as national guardians and agents of modernization.

This study shows that local self-government and democracy cannot develop through mere intentions, legislation and programs, no matter how excellent they may be. The realization of a country's ideals and goals depends to a large extent on the hostility or receptivity of the socio-political culture to innovations and the people's ability to carry them out.

405. VILLA ABRILLE, Milagros del Rio (Ed. D.). "An Analysis of the Guidance Movement in the Philippine Public School System--Retrospect and Prospect." Florida State University, 1963. 220 pp. Source: DAI, XXIV, 3 (September, 1963), 1080-1081. XUM Order No. 63-6368.

The purpose of this study is to develop historical perspective of the guidance movement in the Philippine public educational system by identifying evidences of guidance concepts and practices, stated or implied, as will be revealed in a review and analysis of literature pertaining to the Philippine public school system. The evidences of what have gone before have been analyzed with a consequent look into the future.

Some of the findings are summarized in the following paragraphs. The guidance philosophy is implied in the educational objectives as provided in the Civil Code of the Philippines, the Charter for Filipino Children, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and the cardinal objectives of secondary education. Less than fifty per cent of the elementary schools maintained cumulative records. The testing program suggested by the Bureau of Public Schools contains the basic elements of a testing program. Data on the testing program of the University of the Philippines have been available since 1956.

Post-war data on the information service are almost nonexistent. As of 1955, the University of the Philippines had twenty-two part-time counselors. The 1957-1959 guidance evaluation discloses that majority of the public schools had part-time counselors. There is a dearth of information on the placement service. During the pre-war years, some follow-up studies of drop-outs and intermediate and secondary graduates were undertaken. A national study of secondary graduates was conducted during the academic year 1947-1948. A similar study of vocational agricultural school graduates was conducted during the years 1955-1957. The University of the Philippines has been conducting a ten-year follow-up of its scholars since 1955.

The Bureau of Public Schools has its own requirements of personal qualifications which are quite different from those of the American Personnel and Guidance Association. The undergraduate curricula of the College of Education, University of the Philippines and the Philippine Normal College offer a rich liberal education background for future counselors. The master's degree program at the University offers four courses related to guidance. The Bureau of Public Schools does not specify the guidance courses which a prospective counselor should acquire. Neither does it presently require supervised practice or experience of prospective counselors.

Several recommendations have been made as result of the findings of the present study, but only a few are presented here.

1. A clear statement should be made to the effect that the guidance point of view is necessarily the educational philosophy to which the school subscribes.

2. The full use of the Bureau of Public Schools Form 137-C (revised July, 1956) should be required of all teachers and guidance personnel in order to accumulate useful data on each student.

3. The suggested testing program of the Bureau of Public Schools should be utilized by the teachers whenever appropriate.

4. Provisions should be made for an adequate information service on the local level, especially in the secondary schools, to help prospective graduates, drop-outs, and other groups of students in meeting their needs.

5. A survey should be undertaken to get accurate infor-

mation on the placement service in the schools.

6. Accurate, periodic follow-up of students presently enrolled, graduates, and drop-outs should be made.

7. It is strongly recommended that modifications should be made to expand the requirements for personal qualifications of guidance personnel, with possible adoption of the American Personnel and Guidance Association directive.

8. Supervised practice or experience should be included in the professional requirements of guidance personnel in the Philippines.

406. VILLALON, Aniceto Camacho (Ed. D.). "A Proposed Model Counseling Program for the National Teachers College, Manila, Philippines." University of California, Los Angeles, 1969. 194 pp. Source: DAI, XXX, 8A (February, 1970), 3290-A. XUM Order No. 70-2269.

This study proposes a model counseling program for The National Teachers College (NTC), one that takes into consideration the specific educational objectives of the College in terms of knowledge and overt behavior. Three main sources of data were utilized:

1. Books, journals, and reviews about concepts and practices of counseling program in the United States.

2. Research done by the head of the NTC Guidance and Testing Center and a group of the college faculty members on counseling in the Philippines including at the NTC.

3. Experiences of the writer.

From the readings of books, journals, and reviews about counseling programs in the United States, a picture of what a counseling program in the United States, or what it should be, was discussed. Making use of the data from the two other sources and by analysis and synthesis, the model counseling program for NTC was evolved. Aspects of the counseling program in the United States that could be implemented at the NTC were pointed out. Those which could not be utilized and the reasons why were likewise mentioned. The current counseling program of the college was compared with the model.

The following concepts and practices in American counseling programs were rejected:

1. Statement of goals in broad terms.

2. Delegation of some administrative responsibilities to counselors.

3. The old concept of discipline.

4. The old concept of evaluation.

Adopted as they are are the:

1. Philosophy.

2. Principles of organization.

3. Techniques of, and guidelines for, in-service education program.

Adopted with some modifications are the:

1. Organizational structure.
2. Scope of functions.
3. Kinds of counseling.
4. Tools and techniques.
5. Personnel.
6. Facilities.
7. Relationships.
8. Contents of the in-service education program.

Two new features of the model pertain to its basic activities and evaluation. The five basic activities are:

1. Problem census.
2. Formation of counseling groups.

3. Actual counseling.
4. Follow-up.
5. Feed-back.

The five evaluation components are:

1. Criterion or outcome measures.
2. Definition of the counseling process.
3. Individual differences.
4. Changes occurring.
5. Information-gathering system.

The current counseling program of NTC lacks the following features of the model:

1. The five basic activities, tools and techniques, such as rating scale, semantics and projective devices, and sociometrics.

2. Faculty-counselors and student-counselors.

3. A systematic program of evaluation.

The other features, which it already has, need further modification and/or intensification.

Among the phases that should receive priority for implementation are those that pertain to the basic activities, the evaluation, personnel, facilities, and in-service education. The new features may be tried. Student counselors from among the scholars and student leaders and faculty-counselors should be made available. More clerical and secretarial help should be assigned to help keep records complete and updated. More materials for the teaching-learning activities and for evaluation should be secured or developed and made available to the personnel. More frequent and systematic in-service education activities should be planned and executed to secure whole-college involvement in the program.

A program of implementing the proposed model and some phases of counseling that need research were also recommended.

Cesar Araneta Villariba

407. VILLARIBA, Cesar Araneta (Ed. D.). "A Plan for Vocational Education in Four Private High Schools in Quezon Province, Philippines." Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955. 142+96 pp. Source: Eells, p. 124; and TCCU DIGESTS (1955), 683-684.

The present study attempts to formulate a plan for a functional and socially useful curriculum in four private high schools in Quezon Province, Philippines.

The following three chapters discuss the following: the need for a fundamental curriculum revision in Philippine secondary schools; the social and economic problems confronting Quezon Province; the method of study used and a description of the results of the survey conducted in the four schools.

The succeeding five chapters show how these schools may move forward in meeting the needs of individual students and the communities which these schools serve. Chapter IV discusses the BAWI project (Balancing Agriculture With Industry) in the State of Mississippi, and the diversified occupations program in Alabama and in Puerto Rico. Chapter V discusses the role of administrators and supervisors in providing democratic leadership to the proposed program. The discussion in Chapter VI is based on the principle that preparation for a life of self-sufficiency involves social adjustment, civic competency, personal competency, and happy family associations.

Chapter VII discusses a program of vocational education which is premised on the principle of utilizing to the fullest extent all the community resources which will help enrich the experiences of youth and thereby make vocational education effective. The focus of attention in agricultural education is on the family farm, with the various agencies, public and private, coordinated by the school to bear on the problems of the farm.

Trade and Industrial education is limited to the diversified occupations program and the development of cottage industries.

Cesar Araneta Villariba

Retail merchandising education is proposed as a step to breaking alien control of the retail trade. The causes of the failure of Filipino retailers are reviewed and a core for teaching the course is recommended.

Business education is to be taught in coordination with an existing business school in the community, with guidance as a joint responsibility of both high school and business school.

Home economics education is to be taught as a modern social science designed not to ape Western culture, but to retain the priceless heritage in the basic Malayan culture of the Filipinos.

A basic principle in vocational education is that instruction should be given to those who need, want, and can profit from it. This principle finds application in a proposed on-going guidance program which is discussed in Chapter VIII.

408. VILLAVICENCIO, Rosalina Real (Ph. D.). "An Analysis of the In-Service Training Programs for Biology Teachers in the Philippines with Emphasis on Their Effectiveness in Teaching Inquiry-Oriented Materials." University of Texas at Austin, 1973. 236 pp. Source: DAI, XXXIV, 8A (February, 1974), 4721-A-4722-A. XUM Order No. 74-5341.

The purpose of this investigation was to evaluate the 1972 biology in-service summer institute programs conducted in the five Regional Science Teaching Centers (RSTC) in the Philippines. The biology curriculum material used during these institutes was the Philippine adapted BSCS Green version, *Biology for Philippine High Schools: The Relationships of Living Things*. This evaluation study investigated the following:

1. The effect of the program on teachers' knowledge of biology and nature and processes of science.

2. Attitude of teachers toward the program.

3. The attitude of teachers and their students toward the laboratory exercises included in the adapted material.

4. Effect of the use of adapted materials on the achievement of students in biology.

5. Teaching methods and strategies employed by the teachers in the biology classrooms.

Twenty-five teachers who participated in the 1972 biology summer institute were selected for this study. One biology class of each teacher before and after the summer program was the subject of testing. Five instruments were developed by the investigator to aid in the collection of the data. The statistical techniques used in the analysis of the data were the t-test for correlated samples, analysis of variance and the Pearson product-moment correlation.

Based on the analysis of the data and the limitations imposed by the instruments used in this study the following conclusions were derived:

1. There was an increase in the teachers' knowledge of biology and understanding of the nature and processes of science after the program.

2. The biology students of the teachers after the training performed better in the achievement test in biology.

3. The attitudes of teachers and students relating to the laboratory exercises in the adapted material did not greatly influence their achievement in biology.

4. The classroom activities conducted by the teachers after the training were mostly inquiry-oriented.

5. The acquisition of the understanding of the nature and processes of science was related to the achievement in biology among teachers and students.

Although the results of this evaluation point to the success of the program several other implications were evident from the study. Future teacher education programs should include focus on the higher levels of the cognitive domain, particularly evaluation and synthesis. There were also suggestions that there is a need to revise the current curriculum materials for high school biology in the Philippines. The objective analysis of classroom behavior of teachers and students reached in this study suggests that this technique can be useful in future teaching and research.

409. VILORIA, Leandro Ancheta (D.P.A.). "U. S. Technical Assistance on Public Administration in the Philippines: Establishing a Management Improvement Program." Syracuse University, 1962. 518 pp. Source: DAI, XXV, 8 (February, 1965), 4806-4807. XUM Order No. 63-3189.

Statement of the Problem

Technical assistance, both as a study and a practice, has received increased interest after World War II. Ideally, a study of this significant activity should encompass three areas: the aid-giving institution, the aid-receiving institution, and the cooperative instruments for effecting assistance.

Although there is an abundance of literature on the first and third areas, very little could be found on the second. This study attempts to fill in this gap--a study from the point of view of the recipient institution.

The primary aim of this study is to show some of the effects of United States technical assistance on public administration in a certain country. Specifically, the study portrays the role of American advisors in the establishment of a management improvement program in the Philippine National Government.

Leandro Ancheta Viloria

Methodology

To meet the needs for an "explicit synthesis between conceptual theory and empirical field research," essentially two approaches have been utilized. First, the "prismatic" society and "tutelage" bureaucracy models of Fred Riggs have been "tested" against Philippine society and bureaucracy to gain a better perspective of Philippine public administration. Second, the establishment of a government-wide management improvement program has been developed as an extended case study in order to be able to undertake depth analysis.

Data for the case study have been based on a host of Philippine and U.S. Government documents, implemented by personal interviews. Data for ecology of Philippine society and public administration have been based on primary and secondary sources.

Findings and Conclusions

On the whole, U.S. technical assistance on public administration in the Philippines has been generally successful. Several factors have contributed to this relative success. Against the background of long-standing Philippine-American friendship, the success may be attributed to:

1. The strategic timing of the inception of U.S. assistance.

2. The benefit of certain personalities who have either given direction or helped shape the progressive course of the joint program.

3. The introduction of administration innovations to facilitate the implementation of the program.

4. The adoption of a multi-purpose approach for its prosecution.

5. The receptiveness of Philippine bureaucracy as a whole to the entire technical assistance scheme.

The signal lesson that may be drawn from this study is this: U.S. technical assistance on public administration in the Philippines is relatively successful because the "atmosphere is favourable to it."

W

410. **WAKEHAM, Mabel Irene (Ph. D.).** "Deviations From Standard English in the Writing of Filipino College Freshmen." Stanford University, 1965. 176 pp. Source: DAI, XXVI, 11 (May, 1966), 6709. XUM Order No. 66-2636.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to discover what is happening to the English language in the Philippines, where it has been taught in the schools and used as the only language of instruction for more than sixty years. Since the many Filipino vernaculars remain the language of the home, the typical Filipino child encounters English only when he starts to school. Much of the teaching is done by those who have themselves had little contact with native speakers of English.

Procedure

A group of 341 papers written by college freshmen in two schools in the Philippines, one near Manila and one in Central Mindanao in the south, on a variety of assigned and free topics, were examined for deviations from standard English, referred to in the study as D's. Those having to do with the over-all organization of the papers were disregarded, as were most D's concerned primarily with the writing system of the language. Spelling D's were included because of the effect of native language interference, and punctuation D's were included only when they indicated a non-native intonation pattern.

The eight groups into which the 5,827 D's were divided, with the total for each, are as follows:

1. Singluar-Plural Problems (exclusive of the verb system), 680.
2. Use of Prepositions, 720.
3. Spelling, 964.
4. Omissions, 688.
5. Verb Problems--Tenses, 1,615.
6. Verb Problems--Subject-Verb Agreement, 380.
7. Wrong Use of Words, 510.
8. Miscellaneous, 270.

Following an introductory chapter, chapters two through nine are devoted to classification, analysis, and attempt to explain each of these types of D's, with many illustrations.

To verify the assumption that the mistakes made by Filipinos using English are basically different from those made by native speakers, a diagnostic test of 100 items was administered to a group of high school juniors in California, and to groups of college freshmen in the Philippines. The results confirmed the hypothesis that some non-standard usages are becoming firmly established in Filipino English and are widely accepted as the preferred form.

Special attention was given to the degree of interference by the vernaculars, and to discovering what patterns in the use of the language are emerging.

Analysis of the various types of D's shows that some categories which are obligatory in English but not in the vernaculars, such as that between masculine and feminine in the personal pronouns, are widely respected in Filipino English; while others, such as the distinction between singular and plural, or between past and present, are widely disregarded. D's involving omission of anaphoric elements in the sentence can usually be traced directly to interference by vernacular sentence patterns. Interference by a different phonological system accounts for a significant share of the spelling D's. Some D's, both in spelling and other categories, are traceable to the inherent complexity and inconsistency of English. Because many of the signals which are disregarded in Filipino English, such as inflectional endings for number and tense, are redundant in standard English, there is little breakdown in communication.

411. WATERMAN, G. Henry (Ph. D.). "The Communicability of Tagalog Translations of the New Testament in the Philippines: A Comparison of the Accuracy, Naturalness, and Readability of 1933 and 1966 Translations of the New Testament in Tagalog." New York University, 1967. 575 pp. Source: DAI, XXVIII, 11A (May, 1968), 4505-A. XUM Order No. 68-6173.

Tagalog New Testament translations produced by the American and Philippine Bible Societies in 1933 and 1966, respectively, were compared with respect to three basic aspects of communication: accuracy, dealing with the sourse, the Greek text; naturalness, dealing with the encoding of the message in the Tagalog language; and readability, dealing with the response of the receptor, the native Tagalog reader.

To compare the two translations for accuracy, eight passages were selected at random from the New Testament and a literal transfer from Greek to English based on an analysis of the Greek text was made for each passage. Similar transfers from Tagalog to English were made for the same passages in the two Tagalog translations. The three literal transfers were then lined up by syntactic units and an enumeration made of additions, omissions, transpositions, and lexical or grammatical changes made by one or the other of the Tagalog translations. Chi square tests showed that the 1966 translation had a significantly greater number of additions, omissions, and structural changes, but not of transpositions. A further analysis of the structural alterations judged half of them to be rendered with equal faithfulness in both translations, but 90% of the remaining half were judged to be more faithfully rendered in the 1966 translation.

To compare the two translations for naturalness, eight passages were selected at random from stories and articles published in a Tagalog weekly magazine, corresponding roughly to the types of literature of the New Testament passages. An enumeration was made of various kinds of grammatical features used in the three Tagalog sources. Chi square tests showed that both Tagalog translations differed significantly from original Tagalog literature in the use of verb forms, the predicate marker, and the coordinate connective, but neither differed significantly in the use of nominal constructions. The 1933 translation used significantly more words per sentence and fewer postpositive particles than original literature. The two translations differed significantly from each other only in the number of words per sentence and in the use of connectives and postpositive particles, but in every case the 1966 translation was closer, or as close, to original Tagalog literature than the 1933 translation.

To compare the two translations for readability, cloze tests were constructed from all twenty-four passages and administered to an "experimental" group of young people in evangelical churches in the Tagalog-speaking area of the Philippines and to a "control" group of non-evangelical young people at a teachers' college in Manila. The scores obtained for each test were classified according to the subject's age, educational attainment, home city or province, and religious affiliation. Analyses of variance of the scores of evangelical and non-evangelical subjects, of subjects from different denominations and from different geographical areas, and of the same subjects on a series of tests on the corresponding passages from all three sources indicated significant differences among the sources, the literary types, the educational levels, and the evangelical denominations, and between evangelicals and non-evangelicals. In every analysis involving the source materials, the 1966 translation was found to be significantly more readable than the 1933 translation.

Although the 1933 translation is closer in form to the Greek text, the 1966 translation corresponds much more closely to it in meaning. The 1966 translation is more natural in style as judged by original Tagalog literature. It is also more readable for native Tagalog readers. It is, therefore, concluded that the communicability of the 1966 translation is greater than that of the 1933 translation.

412. WEHRMAN, Richard Leon (Ph. D.). "A Program for Education in Stewardship in the Middle Philippines Annual Conference of the United Methodist Church." Garrett-Evangelical Theological Seminary, 1974. Source: CDI (1974), IV, p. 770.

413. WEIGHTMAN, George Henry (Ph. D.). "The Philippine Chinese: A Cultural History of a Marginal Trading Community." Cornell University, 1959. 478 pp. Source: DAI, XX, 11 (May, 1960), 4456-4457. XUM Order No. Mic 60-886.

This study investigates the Chinese community in the Philippines. While not as numerous as their compatriots in some other countries of Southeast Asia, the Philippine Chinese have occupied a key position in the islands since the early Spanish period. It is estimated that "ethnic Chinese," who number approximately 300,000 and constitute less than two percent of the Islands' total population, control more than one-third of the total trade of the country and at least seventy-five percent of the retail trade. There are few parts of the Philippines without Chinese retail traders or merchants, and it is in this capacity that they have come into intimate contact with the local population. The economic aspects of this marginal Chinese enclave in the Philippines have hardly been studied; the social consequences of their presence until quite recently have been almost completely neglected.

The study tries to demonstrate how the basic social institutions of a marginal trading community have been adapted to a new and basically hostile environment. In focusing on this problem area, the study considers the related questions of:

1. The nature of the community in the past and the influence of Spanish and American colonialism upon it.
2. The particular nature of assimilation of an alien marginal trading community and the extent to which its assimilation was achieved in the past.
3. The state of present Sino-Philippine tensions. Although primarily sociological in orientation, considerable attention is given to the historic genesis of the community and its present politico-economic situation.

In gathering the data various forms of research tools were utilized. These include the use of available historic and governmental records, a survey questionnaire, directed and non-directed interviewing, and observational field work spanning a four-year period of residence in the Philippines. Throughout the presentation, the approach is that of a cultural history.

The Philippine Chinese community is defined to include all "ethnic Chinese"; i.e., all who regard themselves or who are regarded by others as Chinese. Thus, the community includes some "naturalized" Filipinos as well as any Chinese mestizos ("mixed bloods") who are oriented toward Chinese culture. While formerly readily absorbed into the larger Filipino community, the mestizos, partly through the implementation of recent Philippine legislative and administrative decisions but also through the operations of the Chinese school system, are increasingly being oriented toward the Chinese community. At present neither the Chinese nor the Filipinos actually seem to desire the assimilation of the alien community. While the evidence tends to support the view that inter-communal tensions are on the increase, an attitude survey of a Filipino sample presents a picture of "differentiated prejudice" where extreme cultural antipathy is not found to be in conflict with willingness to intermarry. Within the Chinese community itself, the extended family, the sib, and even the phratry are shown to be of crucial social and political importance. Intra-communal tensions are seen often as a product of personal and sib rivalries traceable to incidents attending the downfall of the old imperial system and the establishment of the formal socio-economic institutional agencies of the Philippine Chinese. In conclusion, the study discusses the implications of its findings with respect to the understanding of the overseas Chinese elsewhere in Southeast Asia, and its relevancy to sociological research in the areas of race relations, assimilation, and role theory.

414. WHITNEY, John Raymond (Ph. D.). "A General Hypothesis of Personal Orientation with an Application to Students in Three Secondary Schools in the Philippines." Pennsylvania State University, 1968. 199 pp. Source: DAI, XXIX, 5A (November, 1968), 1483-A. XUM Order No. 68-15,159.

This thesis posits that the human person occurs as an existentially dependent subject, where subjectivity and activity are regarded as a unity of orientation.

The person as action occurs as an orientation involving two polar continua. The first polar continun, that of action style, describes the relative position of the actor along a range of action style from idealistic action at the one pole to realistic action at the other. The second, that of action focus, describes the relative position of the actor along a range of action focus from egoistic ac.

tion at the one pole to altruistic action at the other.

The thesis affirms that action occurs bimodally and simultaneously as a world-building program, or hypothesis, involving correlatively both conception as a mental construction and production as a physical construction. Idealistic action conforms one's physical productions to the concepts in the constitution of his world, while realistic action conforms his ideational conceptions to the products in the constitution of his world.

Furthermore, the writer asserts, action as a personal orientation presupposes a transcendent focus of personal action that also is an active subject, although not necessarily personal. Upon such a subject the person predicates both the dependent world of his construction and also himself as a dependent actor. The intermediate world that the human person constructs conceptually and productively as an hypothesis takes form as a common and mutual object complex relating the person to other human beings, and to the transcendent focus on which he predicates himself, them, and the object world. The transcendent subject occurs to the person as one of four terms along the range of action focus, listed from the most egoistic to the most altruistic as follows: Self, Nature, Society, and God.

The writer constructs a quadratic schema to represent personal orientation in terms of the poles of style and focus, producing the following four quadrants: I, altruistic realism; II, altruistic idealism; III, egoistic idealism; and IV, egoistic realism. He applies this schema analytically to various philosophical and scientific schemata and typologies of personal orientation (e.g., Plato, Aristotle, Hegel, Croce, Ortega; Durkheim, Malinowski, Redfield, F. Kluckhohn, Maslow, Morris, Fromm). After a further elaboration of the general hypothesis, an exploration of the cultural implications of the hypothesis takes place. While cultural factors are not considered in relation to the schemata above, culture corollaries to the four polar personal orientations are discussed and identified as I. culture atrophy; II, culture growth; III, culture chaos; and IV, culture stability.

Following this, the writer reports the procedures and instruments involved in an empirical application of the writer's hypothesis to students in three ethnically distinct secondary schools in the Philippines. In applying the general hypothesis, three intermediate (operational) hypotheses are employed (schematic, instrumental, and differential).

Statistical results are derived which show significant differences between individual respondents and between the schools. Total response frequencies were highest in altruistic idealism (34%), lowest in altruistic realism (13%). Of the total responses, 61% were functional to either culture growth or culture stability, 39% dysfunctional. The three schools varied among themselves in these and other frequencies.

The writer concludes that the general hypothesis satisfies the systemic requirements of an heuristically sound methodology, capable of quantitative application in studying personal orientation in terms relatively independent of affective value language derived from cultural constructs.

Implications for further study include:

1. Comparisons of sex differences in personal orientation emphasis.
2. Comparisons of school curriculum goals in light of student orientations.
3. Study of relative significance of action style and action focus in personal orientation.
4. Longitudinal studies using refinements of the original instrument.

415. WHITWELL, Charles Garland (Ph. D.). "Spanish Educational Policy in the Philippines." University of Texas, 1940. 258 pp. Source: Eells, p. 124; and Dissertation, pp. iii-iv, vi-vii.

Charles Garland Whitwell

PREFACE

The study, of which this monograph is the result, was first begun in 1925, when the author became connected with the Bureau of Education, Manila, and was continued under very favorable circumstances during seven years of work in the educational system of the Philippine Islands. The nature of this work afforded the best possible opportunity for studying the educational progress made by the Filipino peoples during a third of a century under the guidance of the United States. Such an inquiry naturally led to a desire to learn what educational opportunities had been given the Filipinos during three and one-third centuries of Spanish rule.

The educational policy pursued in all Spanish colonies remained almost exclusively in the hands of the Catholic church and the religious orders until 1863. Prior to that time no effort was made by the Spanish government to establish a system of public schools. The religious made no attempt to unite their schools into a system or to follow any set pattern. The type of school maintained depended upon the individual representatives of the church, on the order, and upon local conditions. When education has been carried on under such conditions, it is naturally very difficult to arrive at definite conclusions as to what was taught, how it was taught, and with what results.

For a knowledge of what the civil authorities required to be taught in the Philippine schools, there is available in the Library of Congress a compilation by Daniel Grifol y Aliaga of all the Spanish laws pertaining to primary education. The most important of these laws are available to the student in the extensive work entitled The Philippine Islands, translated and edited by Emma Helen Blair and James A. Robertson.

The best available sources of information as to early conditions in the Philippines, what was actually taught in the early schools, and the progress made in imparting western culture to the Filipinos, are the accounts of the religious and the official correspondence of the civil authorities.

No attempt is made in this study to prove any preconceived idea as to the educational policy of the religious in Spain's colonial empire. The aim has been to give the best evidence available on both sides of the question, so that the reader might judge for himself.

The writer is indebted to many people for the assistance given him during the making of this study and the writing of this monograph. To the officials of the Department of Public Instruction of the Philippine Islands the writer is indebted for the opportunity to live and work among the Filipino people and for access to the records of that office.

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416. YCARO, Godofredo Lacanienta (Ph. D.). "The Division Superintendent of Schools in the Philippines: A Study of Role Perceptions and Expectations." Stanford Uni-

Godofredo Lacanienta Ycaro

versity, 1972. 279 pp. Source: DAI, XXXIII, 8A (February, 1973), 4039-A. XUM Order No. 73-4628.

I. Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions and expectations for the role of the division superintendents of schools in the Philippines held by the division superintendents, the district supervisors, the elementary school principals, and the elementary grades teachers. Specifically, an examination was made of the degree and character of consensus or conflict in:

1. The division superintendents' perceptions or judgments about selected functions pertaining to their own roles as educational administrators.

2. The expectations or judgments of the district supervisors, the elementary school principals, and the elementary grades teachers with respect to the same functions.

II. Research Design

A self-report opinionnaire form stating 50 selected functions of the division superintendent of schools was mailed to the total number of subjects selected above in the Philippines. The statements in the opinionnaire items covered four major administrative task areas of a division superintendent of schools, i.e., community relations, instruction and curriculum, personnel administration, and business administration and services. The subjects were asked to select one of the five assigned responses accompanying each item: strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree, and strongly disagree. The responses were scored on the basis of the method of summated ratings. The analysis of all the data was done by computer (IBM 360/67). Total scores and scores of individual items were found; the range, median, mean, and standard deviation obtained; the statistical questions tested by the application of the analysis of variance, the t technique, and the histograms of frequency distribution of the percentages of responses to individual items.

A total of 81 opinionnaires were distributed to the division superintendents of schools. The number of returns received was 73, or 88.73 per cent. The number of returns received was 190 from district supervisors, 230 from elementary school principals, and 1160 from elementary grades teachers.

The reliability of the opinionnaire was .91. An analysis of variance indicated that the four groups of respondents in this study exhibited different perceptions and expectations for the role of the division superintendent of schools.

The resulting t values indicated that significant differences existed between the perceptions the division superintendents held of their own role and the expectations that the district supervisors held for the same role. Significant differences also existed between the expectations the elementary school principals held for the role of the division superintendent of schools and the expectations that the division superintendents held for the same role. But no statistically significant differences existed between the perceptions the division superintendents held of their own role and the expectations that the elementary grades teachers held for the same role. The histograms showing the frequency distribution of the percentages of responses to individual items demonstrated that conflicting expectations for the role of the division superintendent of schools existed within every group.

III. Conclusions

From the findings in general, it might be concluded that incongruency of perceptions and expectations for the role of the division superintendent of schools in the Philippines existed, that role conflict might arise in the division superintendent-district supervisor relationship, and that conflicting definitions of the role of the division superintendent of schools by the elementary school principals existed. The elementary grades teachers seemed to need better background in professional education in defining the role of the division superintendent of schools who worked under their supervision. The existence of intergroup and intragroup perceptual discrepancies found in this study suggested that some such program as a series of joint seminars for the definition of the role of the division superintendent of schools was greatly needed for the division superintendents of schools, the district supervisors, the elementary school principals, and the elementary grades teachers of the Department of Education and the Bureau of Public Schools, if cooperation of these four groups of educators is considered to be necessary for educational development in the Philippines.

417. YCAZAS, Milagros du Rosaire (Ph. D.). "The Relationship Between School Environment and Authoritarian Personality Among the Faculty of Select Catholic Operated Colleges in the Philippines." Catholic University of America, 1973. 154 pp. Source: DAI, XXXIV, 3A (September, 1973), 1050-A. XUM Order No. 73-19,773.

Based on the assumptions:

1. That a dynamic interaction exists among certain factors in an organization such as the institutional role, the climate within an organization, and the personality of the role incumbents.
2. That beliefs and attitudes of educators affect their social behavior.
3. That feedback plays an important part in this dynamic interaction in an organization, this study investigated the relationship between the characteristics of the school environment and the measure of authoritarianism of administrators and teachers of select colleges operated by a congregation of women religious in the Philippines.

The underlying concepts of system theory of interaction among the subsystems in an organization, feedback and the self-regulating mechanism of systems were used to support the basic assumptions of the study. Likewise, within the conceptual framework of the social system model the study showed that the personality of role incumbents is a variable in the resulting social behavior of individuals in an organization. This interaction was shown in four levels, namely:

1. The individual, that is, faculty and students.

2. Occupying the role of administrators, teachers and educand.

3. Within an organization which is the participating schools in this study.

4. Within a culture, the Philippines.

The personality dimensions of the role incumbents were shown to be related to the characteristics of the school environment as perceived by students.

The subjects included 54 administrators, 257 teachers and 318 students from 13 select colleges in the Philippines. The California F-scale developed by T. W. Adorno and his associates for a measure of authoritarianism in the personality was used to gather data from administrators and teachers. A high score in the scale was equated to a high measure of authoritarianism in the personality. A ten per cent stratified random sample of 318 junior and senior college students responded to the College and University Environment Scale which was designed by Robert Pace as a measure of institutional environment in nine areas. A high score in the subscales was equated to high consensus on the characteristics of the environment.

The study findings and analysis, through the t test and the Pearson Correlation Coefficient, disclosed a relationship between the measure of authoritarianism among faculty members and the characteristics of the school environment which was not significant at the predetermined level of significance. The measure of authoritarianism among administrators and teachers, and among religious and lay, were not found to be significantly different at the .05 level of significance. The descriptions of the school environment of city and rural colleges were not significantly different. Further analysis of the relationship between authoritarianism and the environment showed significant relationship among subscales, that is 22 out of 252 paired variables between the F-scale dimensions and the CUES subscales were significantly related.

It was concluded that certain authoritarian dimensions as measured by the F-scale are related to certain characteristics of the school environment as measured by the CUES, in this particular sample. Cognizant of the relationship between certain personality dimensions and certain school characteristics, it is suggested that participating schools determine the characteristics of the school environment they wish to promote which are consistent with their stated institutional goals. The present results contribute to the pool of research findings on the measure of authoritarianism found among women religious, and form a contribution to the study of the relationship between the F-scale and the CUES, a relationship which was not found in previous research studies.

418. YII, Harris Benjamin (D. Min.). "An Analysis of the Effect of Indigenous Culture Upon the Roles and Functions of American Church Administrators in the Philippines." Eastern Baptist Theological Seminary, 1978. 447 pp. Source: DAI, XXXIX, 4A (October, 1978), 2354-A. XUM Order No. 7816672.

Ever since the American missionaries first landed in the Philippines, experienced American church administrators have found many complex problems in cross-cultural understanding. Each time an American novice is assigned to the island republic, he must learn from his own uncomfortable, at times frustrating, experience. The few insights which he inherits from his predecessors are at best scanty and most often inadequate.

In recent years missionary efforts to the Third World nations have, on the whole, been halted or asked to discontinue due primarily to accumulated misunderstanding over the decades and controversially labeled by the receiving churches as "paternalistic," "imperialistic," and "colonial-motivated."

Harris Benjamin Yii

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of indigenous culture upon the roles and functions of American church/administrators serving in the Philippines. The study approached the project from two directions: the literary research process and the survey questionnaire method.

Through material obtained in library research, four pertinent perspectives were assembled covering the Biblical, theological, historical, and cultural dimensions. St. Paul's missionary methods form the principal perspective in the Biblical aspects of the study. The theological dimension of "the mission of the modern church" of the 1970s was examined in detail. Historically, the history of the Filipino people was the focal point of reference in the development of the historical perspective. Finally, the cultural survey of the "receiving" people rounded up the most important dimension in the cross-cultural investigation.

A survey questionnaire was developed. Sixty-five individuals (thirty-six former American missionaries, sixteen Filipino ministers, and thirteen Filipino seminarians) responded to it. In addition, three separate interviews of from four to five American missionary administrators and a Filipino bishop took place at different stages of the project. All the above processes were utilized to draw conclusions with respect to the areas of misunderstanding, frustration, and ineffectiveness of the missionaries who had labored in the Philippine mission field.

A summary of findings was presented to mirror the effect of indigenous culture upon the roles and functions of the American missionary administrators. From these findings the author presented his recommendations, based on modern managerial principles and techniques to overcome these deficiencies in future missionary enterprise in the Philippines. Suggested changes on the part of both the sending and the receiving churches were recommended so that the givers and the recipients may coordinate future efforts in the expansion of the Kingdom of God.

The conclusions drawn from this study were presented to serve as a guide for future missionaries from the many mission boards still coming into the Philippines in un-

precedented numbers. This study may shed some light on problems encountered in fields of Christian endeavor other than in the Philippines, since basic human relationships do not differ widely regardless of where they are found.

419. YOUNG, James Philip (Ph. D.). "Migration and Education in the Philippines: An Anthropological Study of an Ilocano Community." Stanford University, 1981. 406 pp. Source: DAI, XLI, 11A (May, 1981), 4761-A. XUM Order No. 8109022.

This study:

1. Documents and describes the twentieth century migrational and educational experiences of the residents of and outmigrants from an Ilocano agricultural village.
2. Relates the migrational process to the educational process and deduces patterns and generalizations.
3. Places these processes in broader perspective and considers the implications for the residents and outmigrants.

A review of the literature revealed that studies based solely on national census data or special surveys were generally inadequate for explaining interrelationships between migration and education. These studies tell us primarily that people with more years of schooling are more likely to be migrants; this is also a finding of the present study.

This is an ethnographic, historical, and demographic view from the community-of-origin of the migrants: a lowland community (population 900) with a twentieth century pattern of outmigration mainly to Metro-Manila and the United States. The following bases are used in intrepreting the role of formal education in migration behavior: a census, school records, interviews with and about migrants and former students, and intensive participant observation in the community and its elementary school. Historical data help establish the significance and antecedents of outmigration. The concept of the hidden curriculum is used to explain the formation of migration proneness.

Outmigration from this region is seen as a response to colonial domination by the Spanish since 1572 and by the Americans since 1898. Stimuli for outmigration were manifested during and after the American period by the educational system, Americanization of tastes, and economic and political forces that hindered self-sufficiency and made the Philippines more dependent on the U.S. Mass education, essentially transplanted from America, played an important role in an effective system of propaganda that helped convince Ilocanos to migrate--an effect especially important for the emigrants of the 1920's but nonetheless continuing to the present day. Doubt is raised about the commonly accepted view of an Ilocano cultural propensity for and tradition of outmigration before 1920, and the extent to which outmigration was a response to a dense population and limited resource base.

The study traces in more detail the residential and educational history of all the 1946-70 grade 4 graduates of the community, of whom 220 were outmigrants, 114 permanent residents, and 41 returned outmigrants. Continuation of schooling in tertiary educational institutions elsewhere was one of the main factors associated with their initial emigration. Dollar wealth and other support from migrants was a primary factor that made their tertiary education possible. Education and migration are seen as interacting and supporting each other.

It was found that the present-day elementary school environment influences children in cumulative systematic ways that increase migration proneness. Although these influences were complex, several general patterns emerge. First, children learn about the relative inferiority of their own community: that it is not and probably cannot be "progressive" and self-sufficient. Community-related content and skill development are conspicuously missing from the curriculum. Second, they learn about the relative superiority of Western civilization epitomized by America. The idea develops that progress, civilization, and wealth come from such modern societies. Superficially, they learn some skills and knowledge that will help them adapt and assimilate into modern technological society. Third, the teachers themselves, through their status, attitudes, and personal behavior, subtly communicate the advantages of outmigration.

Evidence of attitudinal conditioning for migration proneness comes from several measures of student attachment. Cross-sectional data show elementary student preference for an urban, higher technology life style increasing with grade level. Migration proneness is both supported and offset by community norms.

420. YOUNGBLOOD, Robert Linley (Ph. D.). "The Political Socialization of High School Students and Their Parents in the City of Manila." University of Michigan, 1972. 137 pp. Source: DAI, XXXIII, 5A (November, 1972), 2460-A-2461-A. XUM Order No. 72-29,242.

This study focuses on the linkages between various social institutions, namely the family, the school, the peer group, and the individual's self-conception, and the political socialization processes at work among high school students in the city of Manila. The analysis is presented in a comparative perspective in which a conscious effort is made to relate the Manila findings with other relevant theory and data. At the same time, however, each segment of the data is discussed within the context of the Philippine setting in an attempt to combine the narrower interests of the area specialist with the broader theoretical concerns of comparative politics.

The data were gathered from paper and pencil questionnaires administered to 1,271 high school students in February, 1970, and from similar interviews with 129 of the students' parents the following July and August.

The first chapter is introductory. It combines a brief background of the intellectual origins and development of political socialization with an examination of the major studies in political science which pertain to the system and individual levels of analysis in political socialization. The pivotal role of various social institutions is also touched upon.

Chapter II is devoted to an investigation of the Filipino family in terms of the students' perceptions of family authoritarianism, the effect of the mother-only family environment on the development of adolescent political attitudes, and the degree of agreement between matched-pairs of students and parents on selected political issues and concerns.

The supposition that the high school social studies curriculum is fundamental to the creation of an informed and involved citizenry is tested in Chapter III by exploring the connections between the number of Philippine history and civics courses a student has taken and his orientation on such political variables as mass media consumption, political knowledge, political efficacy, political cynicism, political interest, and feelings of citizen duty. The relation of the school as a contextual variable and the school peer group environment to the formation of political attitudes and behavior is also analyzed in the third chapter.

In Chapter IV, adolescent self-esteem is scrutinized both in terms of the students' participation in extracurricular activities and in terms of their interest and involvement in public affairs. The concluding chapter is a summary of the most significant findings of the study.

The study demonstrates that high or low social class position of the family is probably the most reliable indicator of an adolescent's political dispositions in Manila. (The role of middle class family background is more ambiguous.) With few exceptions, high and low family socioeconomic status are instrumental not only in determining the school and peer group environments of the students in the study, but they are also helpful in predicting whether or not adolescents see themselves in positive or negative terms. Yet the fact that there is considerable tolerance within the Filipino family for adolescents to develop their own political attitudes suggests an important role for other agents of socialization. Thus, it appears that the function of the secondary agents of socialization in Manila is primarily that of inculcating idiosyncratic attitudes, whereas that of the family is geared to the transmission of basic attitudes of the political culture and to general supervision over the subsystems in which the offspring are allowed to participate.

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421. ZIMMERMAN, Robert Frederick (Ph. D.). "Peace Corps/Philippines: Image or Performance?" American University, 1968. 441 pp. Source: DAI, XXIX, 4A (October, 1968), 1271-A-1272-A. XUM Order No. 68-13,609.

The purpose of this study was to determine how well the initial Peace Corps Program developed for the Philippines had achieved its objectives in upgrading the quality of English and Science education in Philippine elementary schools. An additional concern was to try and define the Filipino teacher's response to the technical aspects of Peace Corps activity in their schools. Both Peace Corps impact and teachers' response were to be defined in terms of the specific, publicly stated goals of the Philippine Project. What types of assistance, material and technical, did Peace Corps Volunteers provide toward the upgrading of English and Science education in Philippine schools, and what aspects of that assistance are still visible and in use three years after the Volunteers have left?

Two different methods of approach were utilized. First an attempt was made to delineate and define certain problems which volunteers would be most seriously affected by. These included problems specifically connected with teacher training and Science and English education in Philippine schools. The Peace Corps Program, including volunteer training, was measured against these problems and an analysis was undertaken to determine how well the Program would, or could, cope with these problems.

The second approach involved field research undertaken on the island of Samar to determine just what the response of Filipino teachers there had been to the Program and activities of volunteers who served during 1962 and 1963. Questionnaires, interviews and on-the-spot observation were used to "measure" the response of one hundred ninety teachers reached during this research.

Several disturbing conclusions were developed. In the first place, the Peace Corps officials who drew up the Program not only did not understand the magnitude and nature of the problems volunteers would face in English and Science education, but, according to the first director of the Project, "No one was really very concerned about helping Filipinos to begin with." Image building goals appeared to be more important than were goals connected with the meaningful performance of a needed job.

The Peace Corps Program was inadequate both in terms of the personnel, the "B.A. Generalists," on whom it depended, as well as in the training provided for them. Both skill training and language training were the most seriously deficient aspects of the training program.

Upgrading English and Science instruction in Philippine elementary schools requires an entirely different role for volunteers--one which has them working as instructors in teacher training institutions rather than as co-teachers or "educational aides" in elementary schools. American-Filipino cooperation during the early years was almost totally non-existent. Peace Corps activity was strictly an American concern.

The "response" of Filipino teachers on Samar has been woefully weak. Materials and techniques introduced by volunteers, even where remembered, are not being used either extensively or effectively. Science and English instruction shows very little, if any, improvement as a result of volunteer activity on Samar. Indeed, even the teachers themselves recognize this to one degree or another. The overwhelming majority wanted more volunteers but they wanted them to be "experienced teachers," "better trained," and "more willing to teach teachers."

In terms of goal one of the Peace Corps Act, of actually providing effective assistance meeting specific needs in the overall development process of the host country, the Peace Corps volunteers sent to the Philippines, and to Samar, during the first three years of Peace Corps activity there failed. They were very definitely more successful as young American image builders than they were as performers of a needed job--in this case, as teachers or co-teachers.

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